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Dr. G. In Richardson with regards of H. Prible.

A GRAMMAR OF THE LATIN LANGUAGE

FOR THE

USE OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

BY

E. A. ANDREWS AND S. STODDARD

REVISED BY

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PREFACE.

WHEN I acceded to the request of the publishers and the owners of the copyright of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, that I should revise that work, I had no idea that the new book would be so unlike the original. In the thirty years, however, since the Grammar was last revised, opinions have changed a good deal as to what the contents of such a book should be, and how they should be presented, and our knowledge of the Latin language has made very great progress. I have consequently found myself driven further and further from the earlier form of the Grammar; but the apprehension I naturally felt at this result has been relieved somewhat by the fact that the learned authors of the original work confess to a similar experience. In justification of my procedure I cannot do better than quote the following words from their preface:—

"The Grammar here presented to the public originated in a design, formed several years since, of preparing a new edition of Adam's Latin Grammar, with such additions and corrections as the existing state of classical learning plainly demanded. We had not proceeded far in the execution of this purpose, before we were impressed with the conviction, which our subsequent researches continually confirmed, that the defects in that manual were so numerous and of so fundamental a character that they could not be removed without a radical change in the plan of the work. . . . Instead, therefore, of prosecuting our original purpose, we at length determined to mould our materials into a form corresponding with the advanced state of Latin and Greek philology."

Most of the old paradigms have been retained, and others have sometimes been added. In the case of the regular verb I have printed the four conjugations side by side, because when thus placed they are more easily seen to be really varieties of one conjugation, and their forms are more easily implanted in the memory than when learned in four isolated groups.

Many of the old examples also remain, and many new ones have been introduced. Those quoted from the Latin authors I have assigned, when possible, to their exact sources; but in various instances, especially among the examples retained from the earlier Grammar, I have been unable, with the time at my command, to discover the precise reference. It has seemed to me best not to sacrifice instructive examples on this account, but to leave them, as in the older editions, simply accredited to their respective authors.

The general sequence of topics has not been greatly altered. The most important changes are the following: The sections treating of Word-Formation have been gathered into one place - between Inflection and Syntax - instead of being distributed among the different parts of speech in connection with their inflection. This treatment of Word-Formation I have tried to make more effective by giving the pupil, where it could be done, some insight into the processes of the growth of words rather than merely classifying derivatives according to their apparent The treatment of adverbs (except their comparison), and of prepositions and other particles, as not properly belonging to Inflection, has been transferred partly to Word-Formation, partly to Syntax. The rules of quantity have been brought into the early part of the book instead of being relegated to Versification, because they seem to me necessary to a reasonable accuracy in pronunciation, which, if neglected at the start, tends to a distressing slovenliness very hard to correct later. While the rules of agreement for adjectives and pronouns remain in their old place at the beginning of Syntax, I have postponed the rest of the syntax of such words till after the treatment of the cases, in order to secure a more natural progression in the study of syntactic details.

No attempt has been made to retain the old numbering of the sections, for the necessary insertion of new matter would have resulted in exhausting the patience of both teacher and pupil by a complicated system of references. The book has been divided only into sections and subsections, with occasional notes, the three kinds of divisions being distinguished by type of different sizes.

The main sections sometimes consist of two or three numbered paragraphs. This arrangement allows the most detailed reference without the use of longer indications than 323, 2, b, or 168, c, Note 1.

In the matter of pronunciation I have made no reference to the so-called English method. The time seems ripe for sparing the teacher the necessity of choosing between a system accepted by the scholarly world as substantially correct and one which, though still somewhat sheltered by a conservative tradition, makes the mastery of quantity and even of word-formation unnecessarily difficult.

The third declension is a stumbling-block in the young learner's progress, because he does not readily see any resemblance between the nouns there treated, such as appears in the other declensions. This is due partly to the varied aspect of the consonant-stems, and partly to the mixing of i-stem forms with consonant-stem forms. Both the strict grouping by stems and the division according to the form of the nominative singular given in certain German grammars are unsatisfactory, because the groups cross each other, and thus destroy the unity of classification. I have tried to meet the difficulty by grouping the consonant-stems simply according to their behavior toward the letter s, and by presenting the i-stems in a progressive series, showing different stages in the absorption of consonant-stem forms.

The obscurity which envelops the subjunctive mood I have tried to render as slightly opaque as possible. Examples have been supplied with rather unusual copiousness, because I believe that the contemplation of examples is the surest way to acquire a feeling for the subtle differences between the subjunctive and the indicative, especially in those uses in which it seems to the novice as if the ancients employed either mood quite indifferently.

With regard to the arrangement of words in sentences, my own studies have led me to views somewhat at variance with those commonly held. My reasons for the difference, in its most important detail, I have explained briefly in a footnote on

page 382, and I venture to trust that they may be found convincing.

Throughout the revision I have tried to keep in mind the needs of the beginner, and when it has been necessary to introduce the results of modern philological research, I have tried to state them as simply and definitely as possible. At the same time, I have endeavored to furnish the more advanced pupil with all that is essential to his work both at school and in college, until the time when an exhaustive grammar becomes a necessity to him. I have especially aimed at treating the more difficult topics in such a way as to be clear, while leaving as little as possible to be unlearned when the pupil's study becomes more mature and scientific. Thus, among many things, I have followed the growing custom of German scholars in abandoning the character j, while retaining the distinction between u and v.

A mass of rare exceptions to rules and of small irregularities in the linguistic usage of the less known Latin writers has been excluded from the present book. Such details are an unnecessary encumbrance in a grammar intended for student use rather than exhaustive reference, and they are accessible to those who need them in larger grammars and lexicons. This retrenchment has, however, failed to reduce the volume of the book, because of the improvement in the size of the type which the publishers have been good enough to make for me.

Whatever books seemed likely to help me have, of course, been freely brought into service, but I may mention, as of particularly constant assistance, Kühner's "Ausführliche Grammatik der lateinischen Sprache," A. Goldbacher's "Lateinische Grammatik für Schulen," Allen and Greenough's "Latin Grammar," and Anton Marx's "Hülfsbüchlein für die Aussprache der lateinischen Vokale in positionslangen Silben." To H. J. Roby's Latin Grammar I am indebted for many examples in illustration of the uses of the subjunctive, and to W. Brambach's "Hülfsbüchlein für lateinische Rechtschreibung" for the treatment of prepositions in compounds. Other books from which I have derived profit will be found quoted in the body of the Grammar.

I would express my sincere thanks to my friends Professor F. D. Allen and Mr. A. L. K. Volkmann for their kindly criticism and valuable suggestions, and to my friend Professor J. B. Greenough for his generous encouragement and many useful hints. I also take pleasure in acknowledging my indebtedness to Mr. John Tetlow, head-master of the Girls' Latin and High Schools of Boston, and to Mr. L. C. Hull, of the Lawrenceville Academy at Lawrenceville, New Jersey, for their kindness in reading my manuscript and in making suggestions by which the Grammar has profited not a little. In verifying the references and some of the examples I have been greatly aided by Mr. H. W. Haley and Mr. F. W. Nicolson of the graduate department of Harvard University.

HENRY PREBLE.

CAMBRIDGE, November 3, 1888.

NOTE.

The following list of some of the most useful recent works on subjects connected with Latin Grammar is given for the assistance of those who wish to carry on their study in special directions.

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LATIN GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTORY. ·

1. Grammar is the study of the way in which thought is expressed by means of words combined in Sentences.

LATIN GRAMMAR is the study of the way in which the Romans thus expressed thought.

- 2. Grammar is naturally divided into five parts, according to the point of view from which words are treated, as follows:—
- i. Pronunciation, treating of the letters and the sounds of which words are composed.
- ii. Inflection, treating of the changes of form which words undergo to show how they are related to each other.
- iii. WORD-FORMATION, treating of the way in which words have grown and the elements of which they consist.
- iv. SYNTAX, treating of the way in which words are put together in sentences.
- v. Versification, treating of the way in which words are arranged, according to the length of their syllables, to form verse.

PRONUNCIATION ($\overline{E}n\bar{u}nti\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$).

Alphabet (Elementa).

- 3. The Latin alphabet consists properly of twenty-three letters: A (pronounced ah), B (bay*), C (kay), D
- * The slight vanish heard in the sound of English "ay" does not exist in Latin. "Eh" more exactly represents the Latin sound, but "bay,"

- (day), E (ay), F (ef), G (gay), H (hah), I (ee), K (kah), L (el), M (em), N (en), O (oh), P (pay), Q (koo), R (air), S (ess), T (tay), V (oo), X (ix), and two taken, during Cicero's life-time, from the Greeks, Y (ü*) and Z (zēta, pronounced zayta). These two letters were used only in foreign, especially Greek, words.
- a. The Latin alphabet as it has come down to us in inscriptions consisted of capital letters only. There are, however, indications that the Romans had for every-day writing some sort of running hand, and traces of this seem to exist in the Latin manuscripts of the Middle Ages, from which are derived the letters now used for printing both English and Latin.
- b. The Romans used I and V as both vowels and consonants, calling them in the latter use I consonants and V consonant respectively. Modern usage confines V to the consonant use, and introduces U as the vowel. It has also been the custom for a century or more to use the form J for I consonants and to confine I to the vowel use, but the more common usage of the present day rejects J and uses I, as the Romans did, as both vowel and consonant.
- NOTE. It is not so inconsistent as it would at first sight seem thus to distinguish U and V, but reject J. This form J is a wholly modern one, unknown to even the latest Romans, while a round form of V does occur in the early manuscripts, though no distinction of vowel and consonant is observed between it and the sharp form. Practically, also, the distinction of U and V is of much greater convenience to the learner than that of I and J.
- c. K disappeared from use very early except before a at the beginning of a few words, as Kaesō, Kalendae, Karthāgō, and its place was taken by C. Even the words mentioned were often spelled with C, except when abbreviated.
- d. C originally had the sound of our g, and the form G was not developed till later, when K had disappeared, and confusion arose from the use of C to represent two sounds. Then the

[&]quot;kay," etc., seem less likely to confuse the pupil than "beh," "keh," "gheh," etc.

^{*} I. e., German ü or French u.

new form G took the old sound of C, and C kept the sound of K which it had acquired. In the abbreviation of certain names beginning with G, however, C was retained, as $C = G\bar{a}ius$, CN. = Gnaeus, etc.

- e. X is equivalent to cs or gs, and except in compounds is always written for them.
- f. II and II are generally written (and spoken) as i and I respectively, even in compounds, as $V\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$ (for $V\bar{e}i\bar{\imath}$), $c\bar{o}nsil\bar{\imath}$ (for $c\bar{o}nsili\bar{\imath}$), $c\bar{o}nici\bar{o}$, $\bar{a}bici\bar{o}$,* etc. (from con, ab, etc., and $iaci\bar{o}$). But II is frequent in the plural of common nouns and adjectives.
 - 4. The alphabet is divided into
- i. Vowels ($l\bar{\imath}tterae\ v\bar{o}c\bar{a}l\bar{e}s$), which by themselves represent full articulate sounds.
- ii. Consonants (*litterae consonantes*), so called because to make articulate sounds they have to be uttered with a vowel.
 - 5. The vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y.†
- 6. When two vowels come together in one syllable the combination is called a DIPHTHONG (diphthongus).
- 7. The diphthongs occurring in Latin are (common) ae, au, oe; (rare) ei, eu, ui.
- a. ei occurs perhaps only in the interjection ei (hei); ui is almost as rare, being found in the pronouns cui and huic, and the interjection hui. In early Latin ai, oi, and ou also occur.
- 8. Occasionally these vowels, instead of being united into a diphthong, have each its own syllable. The second vowel is then generally marked with the so-called diæresis, thus (\cdots) ; as, $\bar{a}\ddot{e}ris$, genitive singular of $\bar{a}\ddot{e}r$ (air), in distinction from aeris, genitive singular of aes (copper).
 - * For the quantity of the first vowel in these compounds see 299, a.
- † The vowels are sometimes classified as OPEN (a), MEDIAL (e and o), and CLOSE (i, u, and y). Furthermore, e, i, and y are sometimes spoken of as SHARP or CLEAR, a, o, and u as DULL, with regard to the character of their sounds. A distinction is also found in some grammars between i, u, and y as soft vowels, and a, e, and o as HARD vowels.



- 9. The consonants are divided into —
- i. Semi-vowels (sēmivocālēs): f, i consonāns, l, m, n, r, s, v.
 - ii. Mutes $(m\bar{u}tae)$: b, c, d, g, k, p, q, t.
 - iii. Double consonants (litterae duplices): x, z.
- a. h is properly not a letter at all, but only the sign of the rough breathing.

NOTE. The mutes are so called, because they represent no articulate sound without a vowel; the semi-vowels, because they stand between the mutes and the vowels in articulateness. It will be seen that the names of the semi-vowels begin with the vowel element, while the names of the mutes end with it.

- 10. The semi-vowels are subdivided into —
- i. LIQUIDS (liquidae, i. e., smooth sounds): l, m, n, r, of which m and n are also called NASALS (nāsālēs, i. e., nose sounds).
- ii. Spirants ($sp\bar{i}rant\bar{e}s$, i. e., breathing sounds): f, i, s, v, of which s is also called a SIBILANT ($s\bar{i}bil\bar{a}ns$, i. e., hissing sound).
 - a. The double consonant z is also a spirant and a sibilant.
 - 11. The mutes are subdivided into
 - i. Smooth $(tenu\bar{e}s^*)$: c, k, q, p, t.
 - ii. MIDDLE (mediae): g, b, d.
 - [iii. Rough or aspirates (āspīrātae): ch, ph, th.]†
- a. The mutes ph and th and the breathing h are also spirants. Spirants are sometimes called fricatives.
- 12. The consonants are also divided, according to the organ of speech chiefly used in uttering them, into
- i. Palatals ‡ (palātālēs, i. e., palate letters): c, k, q, g, l, and n (before a palatal).
- * This word really means "fine" or "thin," and was applied to the mutes through a mistaken analogy.
- † The aspirates were not used until just before Cicero's time. They were at first sounded as the smooth mutes followed by the rough breathing, but soon became simple sounds (see 18, g).
 - ‡ Sometimes wrongly called gutturals (i. e., throat letters).

- ii. Dentals * (dentālēs, i. e., teeth letters): t, d, s, r, l, and n (not before a palatal).
 - iii. Labials (labiālēs, 1. e., lip letters): p, b, f, v, m.
- a. x is a combination of a palatal, c or g, and a dental, s; z is a combination of two dentals, d and s.
- 13. The letters are further distinguished, according to their fullness of sound, as
- i. Sonants (sonantes): the vowels, and b, d, g, i, l, m, n, r, v, z.
 - ii. Surds (surdae): c, f, k, p, q, s, t, x.
- 14. The various classifications of consonants may be tabulated thus:—

	Palatals.	Dentals.	Labials.
Mutes {Smooth (surd) Middle (sonant) Aspirates (surd)	c, k, q g ch	t d Spirants{th	ph ph
Double	x (surd) i (sonant)	Sibilants z (sonant)	
Semi- vowels { Liquids (sonant) { Nasals :		· (surd)	f (surd), V (sonant)
vowers ((sonant) (Nasals	n	'n	m

Sounds of the Letters.

- 15. The letters in Latin have each only one sound. The sounds of the vowels have each two grades, the long $(pr\bar{o}ducta)$ and the short (correpta).
 - 16. The vowels are pronounced as follows:
 - a long as in father, a short as in Cuba;
 - e long as in they, e short like a in desperate; †
 - i long as in machine, i short as in cigar; †
 - o long as in note, o short as in obey; ‡
 - * Sometimes called linguals (i. e., tongue letters).
- † The sounds of short e and i are therefore nearly but not quite the same as in English get and pin.
- † The sound of o is particularly hard to illustrate in English, and the examples given are only approximately correct. The Latin long o is a pure sound, having no tendency towards the oo sound heard at the end of our long o; those who have heard the word "coat" pronounced by careless speakers in New England can get therefrom a clear idea of the Latin short o.



- u long like oo in food, u short like oo in hood.;
- y long like the long sound of French u or German \ddot{u} , y short like the short sound of the same.
- 17. The diphthongs have the sounds produced by running together into one sound the vowels of which they are composed. Thus:—

ae is sounded like ay = yes; (ai nearly so);
au is sounded like ow in how;
ei is sounded like ei in eight;
oe is sounded like oi in coin; (oi nearly so);
ui is sounded nearly like wee in sweet;
eu is sounded like eh-oo (i. e., nearly as in English feud, avoiding the tendency to make a short i of the e).

- a. The early diphthong ou, having a sound between o and u, soon passed everywhere into one or the other of these letters.
- b. During the early empire as and os became weakened so as to resemble long s in sound, and were thus often confused with it in spelling.
 - 18. The consonants are sounded as in English, but
 - c and g are always hard, as in can and get.
 - s is always sharp, as in sin.
 - t is always pronounced as in tent.
 - v has the sound of English w in want.
 - i consonans has the sound of English y in year.
- a. When a consonant is doubled both letters are distinctly sounded; as in $I\bar{u}p$ -piter, bel-lum, fer-ro.
- b. After g, q, or s, u if followed by a vowel unites closely with these letters, producing the sound heard in English sanguine, queen, suavity; as in lingua, quārum, suādeō.

But in the pronoun suus, sua, suum, u is a full vowel. except sometimes in verse. Suus thus has two syllables, su-us.

- c. n before c, g, k, q, x, has the sound heard in English anchor, anguish, anxious; as in anceps, ungo, inquit, anxious.
- d. m and s after a vowel at the end of a word were sounded feebly; as in bonum, ptenus.

- e. n before s also had a feeble sound, producing the effect of nasalizing and lengthening the preceding vowel; as in consul, censor, amans.
- f. The Romans had a tendency to pronounce final d like t, and also b final or before s like p; as in haud, ab, urbs.
- g. The aspirated sounds ch, ph, and th, when first introduced into Latin (about 100 B. C.), had the sounds of kh, ph, and th in English inkhorn, upheave, hothouse. Afterwards ph came to be pronounced as in English phantom, and ch to have the sound of the German guttural ch, a somewhat rougher sound than English ch in character, while the sound of th approached that of simple t.
- h. e in est (is) was elided in prose as well as verse, when the word before it ended in a vowel or m, unless the est was emphatic. Thus: māgna est Dīāna Ephesiorum (pronounced māgna'st), hōc bellum gerendum est (pronounced gerendum'st).*

SYLLABLES (Syllabae).

- 19. Every Latin word has as many syllables as it has separate vowels (or diphthongs). Every syllable ends with a vowel, so far as is allowed by the following rules:—
- 20. A single consonant between two vowels is joined to the second vowel. Thus: $m\bar{\imath}$ -les, so-nus.
- 21. The double consonants x and z, and combinations of consonants which can begin a Latin (or English) word, also mn, are joined to the following vowel. Thus: $r\bar{e}$ -xit, $g\bar{a}$ -za, \bar{e} -gn \bar{o} -sc \bar{o} , \bar{a} -plau-stre, a-mnis.
- a. In Greek words the Greek usage is followed, by which more combinations of letters can begin a word than in Latin. We
- * As in all languages, many variations from these mechanical rules occurred in Latin as pronounced by the Romans. With the extinction of the nation disappeared, of course, the exact pronunciation of their language. The careful student, however, will observe, as he advances, numerous facts in the growth of Latin forms, which shed light upon the finer points of pronunciation.



- write, therefore, Te-cmēs-sa, cy-cnus, etc. Even Pha-tnae is found, although tn cannot begin a Greek word.
- 22. Other combinations of consonants are separated, the first letter being joined to the preceding vowel, all the others to the vowel which follows. Thus: āc-tus, pran-di-um, in-cōn-sul-tō, vic-trīx, ex-cer-ptum, mōn-stra.
- 23. Compounds are separated into their parts. Thus: ab-eō, sīc-ut. So also the apparent compounds like quis-piam.
- 24. But compounds are treated like simple words in the two following instances:—
- a. If the first part has lost an ending. Thus: $m\bar{u}$ -gna-ni-mus ($m\bar{u}$ gnus + animus), lon-gae-vos (longus + aevom).
- b. If the second part would otherwise begin with a combination of consonants impossible at the beginning of a word. Thus: $pr\bar{o}r$ -sus ($pr\bar{o} + versus$). The first consonant in this case is almost always \mathbf{r} .
- 25. When the first part of a compound ended with the same letter with which the second part began, the first of these letters was dropped. Thus: $tr\bar{a}n$ - $scr\bar{i}b\bar{o}$ ($tr\bar{a}ns + scr\bar{i}b\bar{o}$), $d\bar{i}$ - $spici\bar{o}$ ($dis + speci\bar{o}$).
- NOTE 1. The last syllable of a word is called the ULTIMATE, the last but one the PENULTIMATE OF PENULT, the last but two the ANTEPENULTIMATE OF ANTEPENULT.

Note 2. A syllable preceded by a vowel is called Pure (pūra), as -us in deus; by a consonant, impure (impūra), as -stat in constat.

NOTE 3. An initial syllable ending with a vowel, and any other syllable beginning with a vowel, is called OPEN; other syllables are called CLOSE. Thus in deus both syllables are open, in obstat both are close.

QUANTITY (Quantitās).

- 26. By QUANTITY is meant the relative time required to pronounce a letter or syllable. Quantity is either LONG (producta), short (correpta), or COMMON (anceps).
- a. The time required to pronounce a short syllable is called a mora. A long syllable requires twice as much time, or two morae.

- 27. Syllables are long, short, or common BY NATURE (nātūrā prōductae, correptae, ancipitēs) when their quantity is the same as that of the vowel (or diphthong) contained in them. Thus: ĕădĕm, cōnsūlēs.
- 28. A syllable is long BY POSITION (positione producta) when it contains a short vowel followed by two or more consonants or by one of the double consonants. Thus: amantis, absterget, $extral{a}$.
- 29. But a syllable containing a short vowel followed by a mute with a liquid after it is common by position,* unless the mute belongs to the first part of a compound. Thus in patris the first syllable is common, but in oblātum $(ob + l\bar{a}tum)$ it is long.
- a. In real Latin words only 1 and r after a mute thus make a syllable common, but in Greek words m and n also do so. Thus the first syllable in *Tecmēssa* is common.

NOTE. The pupil should be cautioned that short vowels are always pronounced short, even when they occur in syllables which are long or common.

ACCENT (Accentus).

- 30. By ACCENT is meant the way in which some one syllable of every word is uttered to make it more prominent than the other syllables.
- a. The Latin accent was of essentially the same nature as English accent; that is, it consisted of a stress of voice upon the accented syllable, but was not so strongly marked as in English. On the other hand, the higher tone or pitch with which an accented syllable is uttered was more marked in Latin than in English. †
- * There are also a few cases of common vowels. The quantity of these was originally between long and short, and so in poetry they are sometimes used as long, sometimes as short; in prose they are pronounced short.
- † The Roman grammarians of the early empire tried to introduce an artificial system of accents based upon the Greek distinctions of acute,

31. Words of one syllable are regarded as accented; as, $m\bar{e}'$, $s\acute{e}d$, $p\acute{a}rs$.

But see 34-36.

- 32. Words of two syllables are accented upon the first syllable; as, pa'-ter, $v\bar{e}'$ - $n\bar{i}$.
- 33. Words of more than two syllables are accented upon the penult if that is long (either by nature or by position), otherwise upon the antepenult; * as, $i-m\bar{a}'-g\bar{o}$, $a-m\hat{a}n-tis$, but $d\acute{o}-mi-nus$, $t\acute{e}-ne-brae$.
- a. In early Latin the accent could stand farther back than the antepenult.

ENCLITICS AND PROCLITICS.

- 34. Some short words are so closely connected with the word before or after them that they have no accent of their own.
- 35. Words thus closely attached to the word preceding them are called ENCLITICS (enclitica), and are joined in writing with the preceding word. The syllable before an enclitic in all cases takes the accent. Thus: $vir\bar{\imath}$ bon $\bar{\imath}$ clārique, good and famous men; Graecáne an Rōmāna est mulier, is the woman Greek or Roman?
- a. The commonest enclitics are the following particles and suffixes: que, and; ve, or; ne (interrog. particle); ce (demons. suffix); and the suffixes attached to pronouns to strengthen them (see 179, b and c, and 186, a): met, pe (ppe), pse, pte, te.
- b. Inde is enclitic in deinde, proinde, subinde, etc., thus throwing the accent upon the first syllable.
- 36. PROCLITICS (proclitica) are pronounced as part of the following word, without affecting the accent. The chief proclitics are the negatives and the prepositions of grave, and circumflex accents, but the treatment of this system does not belong in a school grammar. See Müller's Handbuch der klassischen Altertumswissenschaft; B.: "Lateinische Grammatik," pp. 192 ff.
- * For one or two classes of exceptions, see Gen. and Voc. of nouns in indus and ium, 97, 5, a; certain compounds of facio, 298, b.

one syllable. Thus: $n\bar{o}n$ ómnis moriar, I shall not all die; ad úrbem $e\bar{a}mus$, let us go to town.

a. Proclitics receive an accent if emphatic; so also the prepositions when separated from their nouns; as, in Gallōrum $f\bar{\imath}n\bar{e}s$ profectus est, he set forth into the country of the Gauls.

NOTE. The accent of a compound word of more than two syllables often helps fix the quantity of a penultimate vowel in the simple word of two syllables. Thus, the accent of $ins\tilde{a}'nus$, $c\tilde{o}nscri'b\tilde{o}$, intellegit, fixes the quantity of the penult of $s\tilde{a}nus$, $scrib\tilde{o}$, $leg\tilde{o}$, in the mind, because accent, which belongs also to English words, is easier to remember than quantity.

RULES OF QUANTITY.

- 37. Every vowel is pronounced long or short, according to its own quantity, without regard to the kind of syllable in which it stands. The few common vowels are pronounced short in prose.
- NOTE 1. Long vowels are marked thus (~) in this grammar, common vowels thus (~); short vowels are left unmarked, except when the mark (~) is useful to contrast them sharply with a long vowel.
- NOTE 2. Vowels followed by two or more consonants (hidden quantities) are treated as short, when their quantity has not been ascertained, at least with probability.
- 38. A vowel before another vowel or before a diphthong is short; as, e in meus; i in patriae.
- a. The breathing h has no effect as regards quantity. Thus, e in $veh\bar{o}$ is short.
 - b. Exceptions: -
 - 1. i is long in $d\bar{\imath}us$ (for $d\bar{\imath}vos$).
 - 2. The first vowel is common in Diana, Eheu, ohē.

For other exceptions see 146, and 246.

- c. Greek words regularly retain their original quantity; as, $Aen\bar{e}\bar{a}s$, $Ix\bar{\iota}\bar{o}n$, $h\bar{e}r\bar{o}es$.
- d. But a few words which have ε in Greek have e in Latin. These are chorea, Malea, gynaeceum. So some have i in Latin; as, academia. Balineum and probably platea seem to have been always used with the penultimate vowel short. These variations were due to dialectic forms in Greek.

NOTE. The Greek letters are in most cases represented by the corresponding Latin letters; but ν is represented by \mathbf{y} , κ by \mathbf{c} , and ϕ , χ , and θ , by \mathbf{ph} , \mathbf{ch} , \mathbf{th} , respectively, and the diphthongs are reproduced thus:—

at by ae,

εt by { ī usually, ē rarely, before a consonant,
 ē '' ī '' before a vowel,

ot by ce, aν by au, εν by eu, ον by u.

- 39. All diphthongs are long; as, aurum, poenae.
- a. But as in prae when compounded with words beginning with a vowel is short; as, $praeac\bar{u}tus$.

This diphthong is sometimes long in Statius.

- 40. All vowels produced by contraction (see 61) are long, whether consonants had originally stood between them or not; as, alīus (for aliius), cōgō (for coagō), iūnior (for iuvenior).
- 41. All vowels before i consonans, nf, ns, gm, and gn, are long; as, Māia, Pompēius, ēius, cūius, amāns, infero, agmen, rēgnum.
- a. Exceptions are biiugus, quadriiugus, Greek words in -egma, and some others.
- 42. All vowels before nt and nd are short; as, amantis, portendo.
- a. But in $n\bar{u}ndinae$, $n\bar{v}ndum$, $pr\bar{e}nd\bar{v}$, the vowel is long by contraction.
- b. Further exceptions are $\bar{u}ndecim$, $qu\bar{v}ndecim$, $v\bar{e}nd\bar{o}$, $v\bar{v}nd\bar{e}mia$, and some Greek proper names like $Epam\bar{v}n\bar{o}nd\bar{u}s$.

For vowels before sc in inceptive verbs, see 237, a.

- 43. I is always long before \mathbf{v} , except in *nivis* and the other case-forms of nix, snow.
- 44. The quantity of a vowel remains the same in all forms of a given word and its derivatives, unless some special cause comes in to change it.
 - a. Instances are -
- 1. Nominatives in -ns from oblique cases with short vowels; as, amāns, but amantis; mēns, but mentī; docēns, but docentem.

2. Cases where the long vowel of a simple word is shortened in a derivative because the accent has left it; as, $\bar{a}'cer$, $\bar{a}c\acute{e}rbus$.

Special Rules.

FINAL SYLLABLES AND MONOSYLLABLES.

I. Vowels.

- 45. Monosyllables ending in a vowel are long; as, $d\bar{e}$, $m\bar{e}$, $qu\bar{i}$.
- a. Exceptions are the enclitic particles ne, que, ve, ce, pe (ppe), pse, pte, which are short.
- 46. Final a, e, y are generally short; final i, o, u are almost always long.*
 - a. Exceptions: —
- (1.) Final a is long in the ablative case (see 91), and usually in verbs and particles, but short in $\bar{e}ia$, ita, quia, and puta (= suppose).
- (2.) Final e is long in the fifth declension (see 132) and in the imperative of the second conjugation (see 222); also in most adverbs, but short in bene, male, saepe, inferne, superne, and words like facile, temere (really neut. adj.).
 - (3.) Final i is common in mihī, tibī, sibī, ibī, ubī.
- (4.) Final o is short in *immo*, cito, *īlico*, duo, and generally in egō, homō. It is common in modō, but short in its compounds.
- A few other exceptions will be found in their appropriate places later. (Cf. 62, c, 94, 115, 124, 158.)

II. Consonants.

- 47. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable ending in a consonant are long; as, $s\bar{o}l$, $p\bar{a}r$.
- a. But cor, fel, mel, os (ossis), vir, and probably vas (vadis) are short; also those in -al and -il, except $s\bar{a}l$.
- 48. Other words of one syllable and all final syllables are short if they end in any consonant except c or s.
- * The enclitic particles given in 45, a, may be regarded as falling under this rule, since they are never used alone.

a. The following, however, are long: $\bar{e}n$, $n\bar{o}n$, $qu\bar{i}n$, $s\bar{i}n$, $c\bar{u}r$, $li\bar{e}n$, $Hib\bar{e}r$, and Greek nouns like $\bar{u}\bar{e}r$, $aeth\bar{e}r$, etc.

For other exceptions see 93, d, 94, 97, 7, 98, a, 124, and 125.

- 49. Monosyllables and final syllables in -c are long.
- a. But nec, fuc, $d\bar{o}$ nec are short always, the pronouns $h\bar{i}c$ and (if nominative or accusative) $h\bar{\delta}c$ sometimes.
- 50. Monosyllables and final syllables in -as, -es, -os are long, those in -is, -us, -ys are short.
 - a. Exceptions: -
 - (1.) as is short in anas, duck.
- (2.) es is short in the singular of nouns in -es (genitive -itis, -etis, or -idis) (see 102), and in the plural of Greek nouns of the third declension (see 124).
- (3.) os is short in *compos*, *impos*, and the compounds of *os* (ossis); also in the singular of the second declension (see 95).
- (4.) is and us are long in the plural of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns (see 91, 95, 108, 143, 155, 4, 178, 180).
- (5.) is is also long in the present of the fourth conjugation (see 222), and in the verb forms $f\bar{\imath}s$, $\bar{\imath}s$, $s\bar{\imath}s$, $v\bar{\imath}s$, $vel\bar{\imath}s$, and their compounds.
- (6.) us is also long in the genitive singular of the fourth declension (see 126), and in the nominative singular of nouns whose genitive ends in -ūtis, -ūdis, or -ūris.

For other exceptions see 94, 98, 101, 124, 125, 215, and 429.

- 51. Perfects and supines of two syllables (see 233 ff.) have the penultimate vowel long if only a single consonant follows it; as, $v\bar{e}n\bar{i}$, $f\bar{u}g\bar{i}$, $v\bar{o}tum$.
- a. Except bibī, dedī, fidī, scidī, stetī, stitī, tulī; and citum, datum, itum, litum, quitum, ratum, rutum, satum, situm, statum.
- 52. The antepenultimate vowel is short in verbs in $-i\bar{o}$ of the third conjugation (see 230, f); as, $capi\bar{o}$, $faci\bar{o}$, $fodi\bar{o}$, $cupi\bar{o}$.
- 53. Compound words usually retain the quantity of their parts even when vowels are changed in composition.

INFLECTION (Flexio).

Introductory.

Stems and Roots.

- 54. Words consist of two parts, the STEM and the ENDING.
- 55. (1.) The STEM belongs to all the forms of the word and expresses the meaning in a general way only.
- (2.) The ENDING indicates the grammatical relations of the word (gender, case, person, etc.), and thus shows how the meaning is applied in particular instances.

Thus, the word $v\bar{o}x$ (voice) consists of a stem $v\bar{o}c$ - and an ending -s; the ending is changed to express different applications of the idea "voice;" as, $v\bar{o}cum$, of voices, $v\bar{o}ce$, with a voice.

- 56. Stems themselves consist of two parts, a simple form called the ROOT and an addition called a SUFFIX.
- 57. The ROOT is the part which belongs to all the words of any one group, and expresses the meaning in a still more general way than the stem.

Thus, the verb $ag\bar{o}$, the adjective agilis, and the noun $agit\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$ have the common root ag-.

Note. Roots are often indicated thus: ✓ag.

a. Some roots are used as stems without taking any suffix, and some nouns add no ending to the stem in the nominative case.*

PHONETIC CHANGES.

NOTE. In the formation and growth of words various changes of letters take place as the parts of the word are put together. These changes are

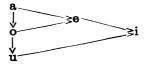
* These are survivals from the earlier periods of language. At first there were only roots, the suffixes and other endings being themselves independent roots. Then two roots (later more) were united together and presently coalesced into a single form (stem period). Finally the inflectional endings became differentiated from other suffixes, and thus words, as we know them, were developed. All word-formation is thus in reality composition.

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the result of an effort to make a combination of sounds (1) easy to pronounce or (2) more agreeable to the ear than the original combination. In the first case the change is called Phonetic Decay; in the second, Euphonic Change.

Vowel Changes.

- 58. The Latin vowels are produced chiefly with the lips and palate, as follows:
 - a is produced by keeping both lips and palate wide open.
 - o is produced by contracting the lips somewhat.
 - u is produced by contracting the lips as much as possible.
 - e is produced by contracting the palate somewhat.
 - i is produced by contracting the palate as much as possible.
- y is produced by contracting both lips and palate as much as possible.
- 59. Vowels, especially when short, tend to flatten from a through o to u or to weaken from a through e to i. Sometimes also they change from o or u across to e or i, as in the following figure:—



Thus: —

saltō but exsultō. servos and servus. factus but infectus. capiō but incipiō. nōmen but nōminis. voster and vester.

- a. Certain consonants have a special effect upon the vowel before them. Thus, a vowel before 1 tends to become u, before r to become e. Cf. epistula for epistola, vertō for vortō, pēierō for periūrō.
- b. On the other hand, u was avoided after v until about the end of the classical period. Therefore we find forms like servos, volgus, volt, in the time of Cicero and Cæsar, though a similar o after other consonants had changed to u, as in fīcus, multum, vehunt.

- c. So after u this o was retained longer than elsewhere, or else cu was written for quo. Thus, while in Plautus and Terence we have equos and quom beside multum, we find later ecus beside equus, and cum always, never quum. On the other hand, suus, tuus, etc., are the classical forms.
- d. u in words like *lubet*, aestumō, and in superlatives (especially after t and s) was retained till Cicero's time, instead of becoming i as in other similar cases. Thus: māxumus, optumus, beside pulcherrimus.
- 60. The diphthongs are sometimes weakened to single long vowels, especially in composition. Then as becomes $\bar{\mathbf{i}}$, oe becomes $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, au becomes $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ or $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$. Thus:—

quaerō but conquīrō. plaudō but explōdō. moenia but mūniō. plaudō but inclūdō.

61. Two vowels coming together are often contracted into one long vowel. The first vowel then usually prevails, but o prevails over the weaker vowels u, e, i, whether before or after them. Thus we have —

- 62. Vowels originally long had in many cases been shortened in classical times, especially vowels in final syllables (cf. 46-50).
- a. Thus, final a in the nominative of the first declension was originally long.
- b. Also many final syllables in -1, -r, -t, -m. Cf. calcar, honor, amat, amem, beside calcāris, honōris, amātis, amēmus, etc.
- c. Nouns and verbs in -o remained long generally through the classical period, but gradually shortened in the time of the empire. So sermo, later sermo; amo, later amo, etc.

- 63. The weaker vowels (e and i) were often dropped; the stronger vowels (a, o, u) occasionally.
 - i. In the middle of a word (syncopē):—

 dextra from dextera. nauta from nāvita.

 vinclum from vinculum.
 - ii. At the end of a word (apocopē):—
 ut from utī.
 neu from nēve.
- 64. Between consonants hard to pronounce together a parasitic vowel (e or u) was sometimes developed, especially in foreign names. Thus:—

ager from stem agro-.

Alcumēna for Alcinēna.

Consonant Changes.

The commonest consonant changes are as follows: -

65. A consonant before 1, r, or s is often assimilated. Thus:—

puella for puer(u)la. parricīda for patricīda. pressī for premsī.

- 66. Sometimes the assimilation is only partial. Thus:
 - i. b before s or t becomes p; as:—
 scrīpsī for scrībsī. scrīptum for scrībtum.
 - ii. g before t becomes c; as:—
 āctus for agtus.

For exceptions see 101, a, and 690, 1.

iii. c before a liquid becomes g; as:—
segmentum for secmentum.

p and t sometimes thus become b and d.

- iv. d, and sometimes t before t, become s; as:—
 claustrum for claudtrum.
- v. m before a palatal or dental becomes n; as:—
 tunc for tumc(e). eundem for eumdem.

In loose compounds m remains; cf. numquam, etc.

vi. A labial mute before n becomes m; as:—somnum for sopnum.

So n before a labial mute or m becomes m; as: — imbellis for inbellis.

- vii. c and g unite with a following s to make x; as:—
 dux for ducs. rex for regs.
- 67. s between two vowels or before m or n becomes r; as: —

eram for esam. cf. generis from genus. veternus for vetusnus (cf. 59, a).

68. v before a consonant becomes u, and then if preceded by a forms the diphthong au. Thus:—
solutus for solvtus.
cautus for cavtus.

Cf. 63, i.

- 69. Consonants are sometimes dropped (elision).
- i. Rarely at the beginning of a word, as:—

 nōscō for gnōscō.

 nātus for gnātus.

 līs for stlīs.
- ii. In the middle of a word, the preceding vowel being then generally lengthened. Thus:—
- (1.) c and g between a liquid and a following s or t; as:—

spārsī for spārgsī, cf. spargō.

or before m or n; as: -

iūmentum for iugmentum, cf. iugō. lūna for lūcna, cf. lūceō.

(2.) d and t before s and sometimes before other letters, as:—

pēs for peds, cf. gen. pedis. rāmus for rādmus, cf. rādīx. clausī for claudsī, cf. claudō. suāvis for suādvis, cf. suādeō. For exceptions see 66, iv.

(3.) n before s, unless t has already fallen out, as: —

sanguīs for sanguīns. vīcēsimus for vīcēnsimus. formosus for formonsus.

but mons for monts, cf. gen. montis. amans for amants, cf. gen. amantis, etc.

- a. In Greek words, nt fall out as in the original; as, elephās, elephantis.
 - (4.) i consonans before a vowel i (cf. 3,f); as:—
 plēbēi for plēbēi. žbicio for abicio, etc.
 - (5.) r occasionally and s often; as:—

 pēierō for periūrō. iūdex for iūsdex.

 trēdecim for trēsdecim.
- (6.) v often, and then if two vowels came together contraction takes place; as:—

iūtus for iuvtus. motus for movtus. aetas for aevitas.

iii. At the end of a word, whenever two consonants come together, the second, unless it be s, is dropped and the preceding vowel not lengthened. Thus:—

mel, cf. gen. mellis.

cor, cf. gen. cordis.

In os (ossis), s is dropped, as ss cannot end a word.

70. A parasitic p is developed between m and a following s or t; as:—

hiemps for hiems. sumpsi for sumsi. sumptum for sumtum.

71. Kindred consonants are sometimes interchanged. Thus:—

c and g, as trecēnī, trīginta.

d and t, as set, haut, beside sed, haud.

t and s in many suffixes, as to, so, $t\bar{u}r\bar{a}$, $s\bar{u}r\bar{a}$ (cf. 255, 1, and 274).

r and 1 in the suffixes $r\bar{a}$, $l\bar{a}$; ris, lis, etc. (cf. 258, and 260).

72. The liquids 1 and r sometimes change places with the root vowel accompanying them (metathesis). Thus:—

cernō and crētum.

sternō and strātum.

Other consonants very rarely do the same.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

- 73. There are eight classes of words in Latin, called PARTS OF SPEECH. They are Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections. The last four are sometimes called PARTICLES.
- 74. (1.) A NOUN also called SUBSTANTIVE $(n\bar{o}-men)$ is the name of something; as, Caesar; $R\bar{o}ma$, Rome; avis, bird; $virt\bar{u}s$, virtue.
- (2.) An ADJECTIVE (adiectīvum) is a word used with a noun to express a quality of it or to describe it in some way; as, bonus, good; māgnus, great; tantus, so great.
- (3.) A PRONOUN ($pr\bar{o}n\bar{o}men$) is a word used to supply the place of a noun; as, $t\bar{u}$, thou; ille, he or that; $qu\bar{\imath}$, who.
- (4.) A VERB (verbum) is a word by which something is affirmed or stated; as, regit, he rules; eram, I was.
- (5.) An ADVERB (adverbium) is a word used to limit or describe the meaning of a verb, adjective, or another adverb; as, bene, well; saepe, often.

NOTE. Observe that a descriptive adverb has the same relation to its verb which a descriptive adjective has to its noun. Thus, in the expression "he acted nobly," the adverb "nobly" limits "acted" in just the same way in which "noble" limits "act" in the expression "a noble act."

- (6.) A PREPOSITION ($praepositi\bar{o}$) is a word which expresses the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word; as, cum, with; sub, under.
- (7.) A CONJUNCTION $(coni\bar{u}ncti\bar{o})$ is a word used to connect other words or combinations of words; as, et, and; nam, for.
- (8.) An INTERJECTION (interiectiō) is a word used to make an exclamation expressing some emotion; as, ecce, lo! euge, well done!

Note. The inflection of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns is called declension $(d\bar{e}clin\bar{a}ti\bar{o})$, that of verbs, conjugation $(coniug\bar{a}ti\bar{o})$. Some adjectives and the adverbs derived from them also undergo comparison $(compar\bar{a}ti\bar{o})$ to show the degree of their application. The other parts of speech are not inflected.

NOUNS.

- 75. Nouns (nomina) are divided into —
- i. Abstract ($n\bar{o}mina\ abstr\bar{a}cta$), or names of qualities, actions, or notions; as, $bonit\bar{a}s$, goodness; $\bar{o}tium$, rest; $f\bar{e}st\bar{n}n\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$, haste.
- ii. Concrete (nomina concreta), or names of individual objects.
 - 76. Concrete nouns are divided into -
- i. PROPER nouns ($n\bar{o}mina\ propria$), or names of persons, places, etc.; as, Caesar; $R\bar{o}ma$, Rome.
- ii. COMMON or APPELLATIVE nouns (nōmina appellātīva), or names of classes of objects; as, homō, man; avis, bird; mendācium, lie.
- iii. Collective nouns ($n\bar{o}mina\ coll\bar{e}ct\bar{i}va$), or names of groups of objects; as, exercitus, army; populus, the people.
- iv. MATERIAL nouns ($n\bar{o}mina\ m\bar{a}teri\bar{a}lia$), or names of materials; as, $l\bar{i}qnum$, wood; cibus, food.
 - 77. Nouns have GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE.

GENDER (Genus).

- 78. The GENDER of a noun is its distinction in regard to sex. There are three genders in Latin, MASCULINE $(m\bar{a}scul\bar{\imath}num)$, FEMININE $(f\bar{e}min\bar{\imath}num)$, and NEUTER (neutrum).
- 79. Gender is of two kinds: NATURAL, corresponding to the real sex of the object, and GRAMMATICAL, attached to particular word-endings without any regard to sex. The natural gender has the precedence of grammatical gender in nouns denoting male or female beings.

- 80. Masculine are the following classes of nouns: -
- i. Names of male beings and of nations.
- ii. Names of rivers, winds, and months.

NOTE. The words for river (fluvius and amnis), for wind (ventus), and for month $(m\bar{e}nsis)$ are masculine, and the individual names were probably at first adjectives agreeing with these.

- 81. Feminine are the following classes of nouns:—
- i. Names of female beings.
- ii. Names of countries, towns, islands, trees, plants, and usually gems.
 - 82. Neuter are the following classes of nouns: —
 - i. Names of the letters and indeclinable nouns.
- ii. Words used merely as such without grammatical relations; as, pater est disyllabum, [the word] father is a word of two syllables.
- iii. Other parts of speech, phrases, and clauses used as nouns.
- 83. Some words are either masculine or feminine, and such are said to be of common gender (genus commūne); as, hostis, enemy; $b\bar{o}s$, ox or cow.

NOTE. When such nouns denote things their gender is sometimes called doubtful (anceps), but this term is becoming obsolete.

- 84. Some names of animals include both sexes, but have only one gender; as, passer, m., sparrow; $volp\bar{e}s$, f., fox. They are called EPICENE nouns (epicoena or $pr\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{i}scua$). They generally have the gender of their terminations.
- a. When it is necessary to distinguish the sex in these nouns, the word $m\bar{a}s$ or $f\bar{e}mina$ is put in apposition with them; as, $volp\bar{e}s$ $m\bar{a}s$, a male fox.

NUMBER (Numerus).

85. The NUMBER of a noun shows whether one thing is meant by it or more than one.

- 86. There are two numbers in Latin, the SINGULAR (singulāris), denoting one object, and the PLURAL ($pl\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{a}lis$), denoting more than one.
- a. There are two instances of a lost DUAL number ($du\bar{a}lis$), denoting two objects; namely, $amb\bar{o}$, both, and duo, two.

CASE (Cāsus).

- 87. The CASE of a noun shows its relation to other words.
 - 88. There are six cases in Latin:—
- (1.) The NOMINATIVE $(n\bar{o}min\bar{a}t\bar{i}vus)$, which denotes the noun as a word, and especially indicates the relation of the subject to a finite verb.
- (2.) The GENITIVE (genetivus), which expresses relations of possession, origin, and such others as are mostly expressed by the preposition of in English.
- (3.) The DATIVE $(dat\bar{v}us)$, which expresses that to or for which anything is or is done.
- (4.) The ACCUSATIVE ($acc\bar{u}s\bar{a}t\bar{i}vus$), which denotes the relation of an object to a transitive verb or preposition.
- (5.) The VOCATIVE (vocātīvus), which is used to address a person or thing.
- (6.) The ABLATIVE (ablatīvus), which expresses various adverbial relations, such as are expressed in English mostly by the prepositions by, from, with.
- a. There are remnants of a seventh case called the LOCATIVE (locatīvus), which was once used to denote the place where a thing was or was done, but afterwards coalesced in most of its forms with the ablative. (See 93, 97, 3, and 112.)
- b. Indications of a special case-form to denote the means or instrument of an action (INSTRUMENTAL case) also occur, but this case became early absorbed in the ablative.
- c. The nominative and vocative are sometimes called DIRECT cases $(c\bar{a}s\bar{u}s\ r\bar{e}ct\bar{\imath})$, i. e., uninflected cases; the others oblique cases $(c\bar{a}s\bar{u}s\ obl\bar{\imath}qu\bar{\imath})$, i. e., inflected cases.

d. The vocative is properly not a case at all, and, except in some Greek nouns and in the singular of masculine (and feminine) nouns of the second declension ending in -os or -us (see 95), has always the same form as the nominative.

Declension ($D\bar{e}cl\bar{i}n\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$).

89. There are five declensions in Latin, distinguished by the last letter of the stems which they include, or (in dictionaries) by the endings of the genitive singular. Thus:—

Declension	Stem-vowel En	ding of Genitive Singular
I.	ā	-ae
II.	0	-i
III.	i or a conson	ant -is
IV.	u	-ūs
v.	ē	-ēi

a. The final letter of the stem is called the characteristic, and appears most clearly in the genitive plural, as follows:—

Declension	Ending of Gen. Plural
I.	-ārum
II.	-ōrum
III.	-ium or -um
IV.	-uum
v.	-ērum

- 90. The regular endings of the different cases, combined according to the laws of euphonic change, with the characteristics of the five declensions, are given on p. 26.
- a. It will be noticed that when the same ending occurs in both singular and plural, it usually has a short vowel in the singular and a long one in the plural.
 - b. It will be seen further that —
- (1.) The nominative singular of masculines and feminines generally ends in -s.
- (2.) The accusative singular of masculines and feminines always ends in -m.



۷.	ф		8	- <u>6</u> 1	<u>.</u> •• <u>•</u>	H	like nom.	φ	iφ	-ērum	-ēbus	100
		N.	ņ-		ដ	ü			₩ņ-	ď	8. 18.	8n-
IV.	节	M. & F.	gn-	-ūs	-ui (ū-)	mn-	like nom.	iş	និជ្ជ-	unn-	snqr-)	-ប៊ុន
		z.	like stem.			like nom.			-ia	_		-ia
111.	7	M. & F.	like -s with stem. euphonic change.	-is	' 7'	-im (me-)	like nom.	i. <u>(e)</u>	100	unj-	-ibus	-īs (-ēs)
II		z	like stem.	•	•	like nom.	like		4		큐	¢.
	Consonant	M. & F.	-s with euphonic change.			H o -		P	89-	un-		89
		ż	d d				like nom.		ø	a â	ŝ	ą.
H.	٩	M. & F.	-08, -us -er, -ir	ιđ	φ	H H	-0, or like nom.	φ	4	-ōrum (-ūm, -ōm)	-īs (-ōbus)	Š
ï	ı¢ĵ		eş.	-80	88	me-	like nom.	ι φ	-86	-ārum (-ūm)	-īs (-ābus)	161
	Stem		z	Ď	Ď.	Ac.		Ab.	N. & V.	Ģ.	D. & Ab.	Ac.
		İ			Sir	gular.				Pl	ural.	

- (3.) The vocative is always like the nominative except in the singular of second declension nouns in -os and -us.
 - (4.) The dative and ablative plural are always alike.
- (5.) The genitive plural always ends in -um, except occasionally in second declension nouns in -os and -om.
- (6.) The accusative plural of masculines and feminines always ends in -s.
- (7.) In neuters the accusative as well as the vocative is like the nominative, and in the plural these cases always end in -a.
- (8.) The final vowels i, o, u are always long (cf. 46); a is short except in the ablative singular of the first declension; e is short except in the fifth declension.

NOTE. These (apparent) endings grew from the combination of a nearly or quite uniform set of case-endings with the different kinds of stems. The original endings were of course common to the different members of the Indo-European parent language. The earliest forms which they show in Latin are as follows:—

Singular.		Plural.		
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
Nom. and Voc	5		-8	-a
Gen.	-()S	-sun	L
Dat.	-i		-bus	
Acc.	-m		-8	-a
Abl.	-4	đ	-bus	
[Loc.]	-1	i	-is	

Most of the development from these endings to the common endings met in literature is easy to trace by the rules of euphonic change given above A few points, however, need further mention. The -s had dropped from the nominative of the first declension, and the -d of the ablative had almost disappeared, when literature began. This -d belonged only to a-, o-, and i- stems. The ablative of consonant and u- stems came from the old instrumental case in e; that of E- stems was formed later to correspond to a- stems. In the first declension the ending of the genitive singular gave way to a new one, -aī, later -ae, which is very probably the locative ending transferred to the genitive case. A like transposition of the locative ending took place in the dative and ablative plural of the first and second declensions. -em in the accusative singular of consonant stems is probably the Latin representative of an earlier vowel-m. Cf. Handbuch der klassischen Altertumswissenschaft, edited by Iwan Müller, vol. ii., Part I., B.: "Lateinische Formenlehre," by J. Stolz, pp. 153, 213 et alias.

FIRST DECLENSION.

91. The first declension consists of the nouns whose stems end in -ā. The nominative is the same as the stem with the vowel shortened. They are thus declined:—

mūsa, a muse.

Stem	mūsā-
Singular.	Plural.
Nom. mūsa, a muse.	mūsae, muses.
Gen. mūsae, of a mu	se. mūsārum, of muses.
Dat. mūsae, to a mus	se. mūsīs, to muses.
Acc. mūsam, a muse.	mūsās, muses.
Voc. mūsa, thou muse	e. mūsae, ye muses.
Abl. mūsā, from, by	, with a mūsīs, from, by, with
muse.	muses.

GENDER.

- 92. Nouns of the first declension are regularly feminine.
- a. Nouns which denote male beings are masculine; as, scrība, clerk; poēta, poet. So Hadria, the Adriatic Sea (properly, the god of that sea). So also various names of rivers (cf. 80, ii.).

CASE-FORMS.

- 93. The locative of the first declension ends in -ae in the singular and in -īs (like the ablative) in the plural; as, $R\bar{o}mae$, at Rome; $Ath\bar{e}n\bar{i}s$, at Athens.
- a. An old form of the genitive singular in $-\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ occurs in the poets; as, $aul\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$. The same ending is found in the dative, but only as a diphthong.
- b. Like the stem vowel the nominative ending in the first dedension was originally long, and the nominative is sometimes found with the final a long in early poetry; as, puellā.
- c. The old genitive singular in -ās is used in the word familia, when combined with pater, māter, fīlius, or fīlius. Thus: pater familiās, a householder.

- d. The old genitive plural in -um instead of -arum is retained in compounds of cola and gena, in many names of nations, and in the words amphora, a liquid measure, and drachma, a Greek coin.
- e. A dative and ablative plural in -ābus is sometimes found. This form is usual only in dea, goddess, and $f\bar{\imath}lia$, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of deus, god, and $f\bar{\imath}lius$, son.
- f. In words like $B\bar{a}iae$, the i of the stem is dropped before the ending of the dative and ablative plural; as, $B\bar{a}i\bar{s}$ for $B\bar{a}i\bar{s}$. (Cf. 3, f, and 69, ii., 4.)

For other rare old case forms, cf. Bücheler, Grundriss der lat. Declination.

GREEK NOUNS.

Note. Nouns taken from the Greek were latinized to a greater or a less degree according to the time when they came into the language. The nouns borrowed early show more Latin forms, while those which came in at the height of the classical period retain more of their Greek aspect. Often a Latin form is the more common in prose, while the Greek form is preferred by the poets.

94. Greek nouns in the first declension end in -a or -ē feminine, in -ās or -ēs masculine. The Greek forms occur only in the singular; and in nouns in -a they are chiefly confined to the accusative case.

The declension of the singular is as shown below. The plural is like that of pure Latin nouns.

Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc.	Ossae Ossae Ossam (-an or -ān) *	epitomē epitomēs (-ae) epitomae (-ē) epitomēn (-am)	tiārās tiārae tiārae tiāram (-ān)	comētēs comētae comētae comēten (-am)	Anchīsēs Anchīsae Anchīsae Anchīsēn (-am)
Voc. Abl.	Ossa Ossa	epitomē epitomē(-ā)	tiārā (-a) tiārā	comētā (-ē)	Anchisē (-ā)

SECOND DECLENSION.

- 95. The second declension consists of the nouns whose stems end in -o. The nominative ending is -us (-os)
 - * The forms in parentheses are the less common ones.



masculine and a few feminine, -er or -ir * masculine, um- (-om) neuter. The declension is as follows: —

dominus, master. rēgnum, kingdom.

servos (later servus), slave.

Stem	domino-	servo-	rēgno-
		Singular.	
Nom.	dominus	servos (servus)	rēgnum
Gen.	dominī	servī	rēgnī
D. & A.	dominō	servō	rēgn ō
Acc.	dominum	servom (servum)	rēgnum
Voc.	domine	serve	rēgnum
		Plural.	
N. & V.	dominī	servī	rēgna
Gen.	dominōrum	servõrum	rēgnōrum
C. C	dominīs	servīs	rēgnīs
Acc.	dominōs	servōs	rēgna
1100.			_
ger	ner, son-in-law.	ager, field.	vir, man.
ger Stem	ner, son-in-law. genero-	ager, field.	vir, man. viro-
_	•	.	
_	•	agro-	
Stem	genero-	agro- Singular.	viro-
Stem N. & V.	genero-	agro- Singular. ager	viro- vir
Stem N. & V. Gen.	genero- gener generī	agro- Singular. ager agrī	viro- vir virī
Stem N. & V. Gen. D. & A.	genero- gener generī generō	agro- Singular. ager agrī agrō agrum	viro- vir virī virō
N. & V. Gen. D. & A. Acc.	genero- gener generī generō	agro- Singular. ager agrī agrō agrum Plural.	viro- vir virō virum
N. & V. Gen. D. & A. Acc.	genero- generī generō generum	agro- Singular. ager agrī agrō agrum Plural. agrī	viro- virī virō virum
N. & V. Gen. D. & A. Acc. N. & V. Gen.	genero- generī generō generum generī	agro- Singular. ager agrī agrō agrum Plural. agrī agrōrum	viro- virī virō virum virī virō
N. & V. Gen. D. & A. Acc.	genero- generī generō generum	agro- Singular. ager agrī agrō agrum Plural. agrī	viro- virī virō virum

^{*} The only nouns in -ir are vir (man), and (chiefly in late Latin) $l\bar{e}vir$, husband's brother.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

96. The following nouns are —

(1.) Feminine: —

alvos, belly. diphthongus, diphthong. atomus, atom. humus, ground. carbasus, flax, sail. vannus, grain-fan. colus. distaff.

Also most names of countries, towns, islands, trees, plants, and gems (cf. 81, ii.), with a few other comparatively rare nouns.

(2.) Neuter:—

pelagus, sea; vīrus, poison; and generally volgus, crowd.

CASE-FORMS.

- 97. (1.) Stems in ro-preceded by a consonant generally form the nominative by dropping the stem vowel o and developing a parasitic e before the r (see 64), as in ager. (Cf. paradigm.)
- (2.) In the following nouns the e belongs to the stem, and is of course retained through all the cases, as in *gener*. (Cf. paradigm.)

adulter, adulterer.puer, boy.gener, son-in-law.socer, father-in-law.Liber, Bacchus.vesper, evening.

Also the compounds from $fer\bar{o}$ and $ger\bar{o}$ which end in -fer or -ger; as, $L\bar{u}cifer$, the morning star (i. e., light-bringer); armiger, armor-bearer.

- (3.) The locative of the second declension ends in $-\overline{1}$ in the singular, and in $-\overline{1}$ s (like the ablative) in the plural; as, $Corinth\overline{i}$, at Corinth; $V\overline{eis}$, at Veii.
- (4.) Nouns in -ius and -ium formed the genitive singular in -ī (not -iī) until about 45 B. C. Thus: gladius, gladī; negōtium, negōtī. In proper names the single -ī in the genitive was retained much later.

- (5.) The vocative singular of proper names in -ius and -ium, and of the nouns $f\bar{\imath}lius$, son, and genius, guardian spirit, drops the e. Thus: $Mercur\bar{\imath}$, $f\bar{\imath}l\bar{\imath}$, $gen\bar{\imath}$. Other nouns in -ius are not found in the vocative singular.
- a. The accent of these genitives and vocatives is on the penult even though short; as, Mercúrī.
 - (6.) Deus, god, is thus declined: -

	Singular.	Plural.
N. and V.	deus	deī, diī, dī
Gen.	deī	deōrum, de ū m
Dat. and Abl.	$de\bar{o}$	deīs, diīs, dīs
Acc.	deum	deōs

- a. The forms $de\bar{\imath}$, $de\bar{\imath}s$ are more common than $di\bar{\imath}$, $di\bar{\imath}s$, $d\bar{\imath}s$, until after Cicero's time.
- (7.) Nouns denoting money, weight, or measure generally retain the old form $-\bar{u}m$ ($-\bar{o}m$) instead of $-\bar{o}rum$ in the genitive plural; as, $numm\bar{u}m$, of coin; $modi\bar{u}m$, of bushels.
- a. Many other such genitives occur in verse; and the following are sometimes found in prose: $de\bar{u}m$, $duumvir\bar{u}m$, $fabr\bar{u}m$ (always when used with praefectus); also $l\bar{\iota}ber\bar{u}m$ (meaning children), and $soci\bar{u}m$ when used of the Italian allies.

For other rare old forms, cf. Bücheler's Grundriss.

GREEK NOUNS.

98. Greek nouns in the second declension end in -os, -os, or -us masculine (or feminine), -on neuter. They are thus declined:—

Nom.	Dēlos	Androgeōs	Orpheus	barbiton (lyre)
Dat.	Dēlī	Androgeō (-ī)	Orphei (-os)	barbitī
Gen.	Dēlō	Androgeō	Orphei (-ō)	barbitō
Acc.	Dēlon	Androgeō	Orphea	barbiton
	(-um)	(-ōn)		
Voc.	$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{ar{e}}$ le	Androgeōs	Orpheu	barbiton
Abl.	Dēlō	Androgeō	Orpheō	barbitō

- a. The plural is like that of pure Latin nouns, except that the nominative sometimes ends in -oe; as, Adelphoe; and the genitive (especially in titles of books) in -on; as, Georgicon, of the Georgics.
- b. Proper names in -er (Greek -pos) are generally declined as pure Latin nouns. Thus: Alexander, Antipater; gen. Alexandrī, Antipatrī.
- c. Isolated forms, corresponding directly to the Greek, are the neuter plurals (nom. and acc.) $pelag\bar{e}$ (of pelagus, sea), $c\bar{e}t\bar{e}$ (of $c\bar{e}tus$, whale), and $Temp\bar{e}$; the nominative $Panth\bar{u}s$ and vocative $Panth\bar{u}s$; the genitive $Menandr\bar{u}$.
 - d. Iēsūs has accusative Iēsum, and in all other cases Iēsū.

THIRD DECLENSION.

99. The third declension, unlike the others, includes two * kinds of stems, the i- stems and the consonant stems. It has also two u- stems, which are treated like consonant stems.

CONSONANT STEMS.

- 100. Consonant stems can be conveniently studied in the following three groups:—
 - 1. Those which add s to form the nominative singular.
 - 2. Those which have no s in the nominative singular.
 - 3. Those which were originally s- stems.

In all of these groups the nominative sometimes has the stem vowel varied. (See below.)

Nouns Adding S in Mominative Singular.

- 101. The nominative singular is formed by adding s in the case of masculine and feminine mute stems, of the two u- stems, and of the only stem in m-.†
- * The third declension thus really includes two declensions, but the caseforms for i- stems and those for consonant stems fell together to such an extent as the language grew that it is best to combine the two kinds of stems in one declension.
- † This is the stem hiem-, which besides adding s in the nominative develops a parasitic p. Thus: hiemps, f., winter, gen. hiemis.

- a. A labial mute (b or p) remains unchanged before s, a palatal (c or g) unites with s to form x, a dental (d or t) disappears before s. The two u-stems lengthen the stem vowel.
- b. Four dental stems also lengthen the stem vowel: ped-, nom. $p\bar{e}s$, m., foot; abiet-, nom. abies, f., fir-tree; ariet-, nom. aries, m., ram; pariet-, nom. paries, m., wall.
- c. Mute stems with i before the mute usually show e instead of i in the nominative; as, $m\bar{\imath}lit$ -, nom. $m\bar{\imath}les$, m., soldier; remig-, nom. remex, m., oarsman. So also aucup-, nom. auceps, m., bird-catcher. Exceptions are calic-, nom. calix, m., cup; lapid-, nom. lapis, m., stone; and Greek stems in id-.
- d. The stem bov- makes $b\bar{o}s$, c.,* ox or cow; niv- (originally nigv-) makes nix, f., snow; coniug- has a parasitic n in the nominative. Thus: coniunx, c., spouse, gen. coniugis.

102. Such nouns are thus declined: -

	forceps, c., pincers	rēx, m., king	lapis, m., stone	mīles, m., soldier	süs, c. swine
Stem	forcip-	rēg-	lapid-	mīlit-	su-
		Si	ngular.		
N. and V. Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.	forceps forcipis forcipi forcipem forcipe	rēx rēgis rēgī rēgem rēge	lapis lapidis lapidī lapidem lapide	mīles mīlitis mīlitī mīlitem mīlite	sūs suis suī suem sue

Plural.

N. Acc, and V. forcipēs rēgēs lapidēs mīlitēs suēs Gen. forcipum rēgum lapidum mīlitum suum Dat, and Abl. forcipibus rēgibus lapidibus mīlitibus subus (suibus)

Nouns with No S in Nominative Singular.

103. Stems in 1-, n-, or r-, and the few neuters in t-(also one in d-†), add no s, but themselves serve as nominatives, either unchanged or with the following modifications:—

^{*} I. e., common gender.

[†] Namely, cord-, nom. cor, heart.

- a. Sal-, nom. $s\bar{a}l$, m., salt; lar-, nom. $L\bar{a}r$, m., hearth-god; and the Greek stems $\bar{a}\bar{e}r$ -, nom. $\bar{a}\bar{e}r$, m., air; and aether-, nom. $aeth\bar{e}r$, m., upper air, lengthen the stem vowel. The stem $calc\bar{a}r$ shortens the vowel: calcar, n., spur.
- b. Stems ending in two consonants drop the second (cf. 69 iii.); as, *mell*-, nom. *mel*, n., honey. Two also lengthen the vowel: lact-, nom. $l\bar{a}c$, n., milk; and farr-, nom. $f\bar{a}r$, n., spelt.
- c. Stems in on- and those in din- or gin- drop the n and end the nominative in o; as, leon-, nom. leo, m., lion; virgin-, nom. virgo, f., maiden. So also turbin-, nom. turbo, m., whirlwind; and carn-, nom. caro, f., flesh. Cf. homin-, nom. homo, m., man.
- d. Other stems in in-show en in the nominative; as, carmin, nom. carmen, n., song; flāmin-, nom. flāmen, m., (a kind of) priest.
- e. Stems in tr-develop a parasitic Θ in the nominative; as, patr-, nom. pater, m., father; $m\bar{a}tr$ -, nom. $m\bar{a}ter$, f., mother. (Cf. also Vowel stems, 108, b, and 97, 1.)
- f. The stem capit- makes caput, n., head. Greek neuter stems in at-drop the t; as, $po\bar{e}mat$ -, nom. $po\bar{e}ma$, n., poem.

104. Such nouns are thus declined: -

cō	insul, m., consul	leō, m., lion	virgō, f., maiden
Stem	cōnsul-	leõn-	virgin-
		Singular.	
N. & V.	cōnsul	leō	virgō
Gen.	cōnsulis	leōnis	v irginis
Dat.	cōnsulī	leōnī	v irginī
Acc.	cōnsulem	leōnem	virginem
Abl.	consule	leōne	virgine
		Plural.	
N. Acc. &	V. cōnsulēs	leõnēs	virginēs
Gen.	cōnsulum	leōnum	virginum
Dat. & Al	ol. consulibus	leōnibus	virginibus

nomen, n., name caput, n., head pater, m., father

Stem	nōmin-	capit-	patr-
		Singular.	
N. & V. Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.	nōmen nōminis nōminī nōmen nōmine	caput capitis capitī caput capite	pater patris patri patrem patre
		Plural.	•
Gen.	. nōmina nōminum nōminibus	capita capitum capitibus	patrēs patrum patribus

Stems Originally Ending in S.

- 105. Of the many nouns which originally had s-stems, only $v\bar{a}s$, n., vase, gen. $v\bar{a}sis$, retains the s in declension, and this noun passes in the plural into the second declension (see paradigm, 107). In the other nouns s becomes r in declension, i. e., between two vowels. (Cf. 67.)
- 106. These nouns show the following forms in the nominative singular:—
- a. Some masculine nouns in -ōs retain the original form; as, flōs, flower, gen. flōris; more commonly, however, they have -or; as, amor, love, gen. amōris. A few have both forms; as, honōs or honor, honor. So the feminine arbōs or arbor, tree, gen. arbŏris.
- b. Neuter stems in or- (orig. os-) generally have the nominative in -us; as, corpus, body, gen. corporis. They frequently have the stem vowel weakened to e in the oblique cases; as, opus, work, gen. operis. A few have -ur in the nominative; as, rōbur, strength, gen. rōboris.
- c. After the analogy of neuters are formed the masculines lepus, hare, gen. leporis; Ligus, Ligurian, gen. Liguris; and the feminine Venus, gen. Veneris.
 - d. The original s appears also in the following: -

Stem	Nom.	Stem	Nom.
aer-	aes, n., copper.	$m \bar{u} r$ -	$m\bar{u}s$, c., mouse.
Cerer-	Cerēs, f., Ceres.	$oldsymbol{p}ar{u}$ r-	$p\bar{u}s$, n., pus.
crū r-	$cr\bar{u}s$, n., leg.	rūr-	$r\bar{u}s$, n., country.
glīr-	glīs, m., dormouse.	tellūr-	$tell\bar{u}s, f., earth.$
$iar{u}r$ -	iūs, n., right.	$tar{u}r$ -	$t\bar{u}s$, n., frankincense.
măr-	mās, m., male being.		

e. A few masculine stems in er- have the nominative in -is, either alone or beside a form in -er. These are: —

Stem	Nom.
ciner-	cinis, ashes.
pulver-	pulv is, dust.
vōmer-	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} var{o}mer, \ var{o}mis, \end{array} ight\}$ ploughshare.

107. Such nouns are thus declined: -

101. Du	CH HUUHS AIC	inus decimed. —		
flōs	, m., flower	honor, m., honor	pulvis, m., dust	
Stem	flōr-	honōr-	pulver-	
		Singular.		
N. & V.	flōs	honōs) honor (pulvis	
Gen.	flōris	honōris	pulveris	
Dat.	flōrī	honōrī	pulverī	
Acc.	flörem	honōrem	pulverem	
Abl.	flōre	honōre	pulvere	
		Plural.		
N. Acc. & V.	. flörēs	honõrēs	pulverēs	
Gen.	flōrum.	honōrum	pulverum	
Dat. & Abl.	flōrib us	honōribus	pulveribus	
corp	us, n., body	opus, n., work	ās, n., vase	
Stem	corpor-	oper-	vās-	
		Singular.		
N. Acc. & V.	corpus	opus	vās	
Gen.	corporis	operis	v āsis	
Dat.	corporī	operī	vāsī	
Abl.	corpore	opere	v āse	
Plural.				
N. Acc. & V	. corpora	opera	vāsa	
Gen.	corporum	operum	vāsōrum	
Dat. & Abl.	corporibus	operibus	vāsis	

I- STEMS.

108. Masculine and feminine i- stems add s to form the nominative. Neuters add no s, but show e instead of i in the nominative. Those in āli- and āri- drop the i and shorten the ā.* Thus:

Stem	Nom.
siti-	sitis, f., thirst.
mari-	mare, n., sea.
$animar{a}lar{\imath}$ -	animal, n., living thing.
$exemplar{a}rar{\imath}$ -	exemplar, n., pattern.

a. But a number of nouns, chiefly feminine, form the nominative in -ēs. The common ones are as follows:—

$aed\bar{e}s$, f., temple (also $aedis$).	$pr\bar{o}l\bar{e}s$, f., offspring.
caedēs, f., bloodshed.	$p\bar{u}b\bar{e}s$, f., youth.
$cl\bar{a}d\bar{e}s$, f., disaster.	$sar{e}dar{e}s$, f., seat.
compāgēs, f., joint (in building).	sordēs, f., dirt.
famēs, f., hunger.	$strar{a}gar{e}s$, f., carnage.
$f\overline{e}l\overline{e}s$, f., cat.	struēs, f., heap.
lābēs, f., ruin.	suboles, f., offspring.
$lu\bar{e}s$, f., plague.	$t\bar{a}b\bar{e}s$, f., wasting.
$m\bar{o}l\bar{e}s$, f., mass.	torquēs, c., necklace.
$n\bar{u}b\bar{e}s$, f., cloud.	$var{a}tar{e}s$, c., seer.
palumbēs, c., wood-pigeon.	<i>veprēs</i> , m., bramble.

b. A few stems in bri- and tri- drop the i- and develop a parasitic e. (Cf. 103, e, and 97, 1.) Thus:—

Stem	Nom.
imbri-	imber, m., shower.
lintri-	linter, f., boat.

NOTE. There was a tendency on the part of nouns with i- stems to pass into consonant stems, and between the nouns with complete i- stem forms and those with complete consonant stem forms are found various words whose forms show different stages in the passage from the former to the latter.

^{*} Such nouns were originally neuter adjectives.

109. The following paradigms exhibit the mixing of the consonant stems and i- stems, beginning with a pure i- stem on the left and going on the right to nouns which, retaining the i- stem in the plural, had become consonant stems in the singular:—

N. & V. Gen. D. & A. Acc.	N. & V. Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.	Stem	sitis, f thirst
	sitis sitis siti sitim	siti-	sitis, f., thirst.
maria marium maribus maria	mare maris mari mare mare	mari-	mare, n.,
turrēs turrium turribus turrīs (-ēs)	turis turi turin (-em) turi (-e)	turri-	turris, f., tower.
Plural. imbrēs imbrium imbribus imbrēs (-īs)	Singular. imber imbris imbri imbre imbre imbre (-ī)	imbri-	imber, m., shower.
hostēs hostium hostibus hostēs (-īs)	hostis hostis hosti hostem	hosti-	hostis, c., enemy.
nūbēs nūbium nūbibus nūbēs (-īs)	nübēs nübis nübī nübem nübe	nūb(i)-	nūbēs,* f., cloud.
aetātēs aetātlum(-um) aetātlbus aetātēs (-īs)	actās actātis actāti actātem	aetāt(i)-	aetās, f., age.

Nouns like nübes seem to have been originally s- stems, and to have suffered mutilation. Cf. 133, b, footnote.

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a. Besides nouns like aetās, the nouns which have consonant stems in the singular and i- stems in the plural are chiefly the following monosyllables:—

Nom.	S tem	Gen.
arx, f., citadel	arc(i)-	arcis
$d\bar{e}ns$, m., tooth	dent(i)-	dentis
$d\bar{o}s$, f., dowry	$dar{o}t(i)$ -	$dar{o}tis$
fons, m., fountain	font(i)-	font is
$f\overline{u}r$, m., thief	$f\overline{u}r(i)$ -	$f\overline{u}ris$
$m\bar{a}s$, m., male	mar(i)-	maris
mons, m., mountain	mont(i)-	montis
nix, f., snow	niv(i)-	nivis
nox, f., night	noct(i)-	noct is
$p\bar{o}ns$, m., bridge	pont(i)-	pontis
strix, f., screech-owl	strig(i)-	strigis
urbs, f., city	urb(i)-	urbis

PECULIAR NOUNS.

110. Three nouns, $v\bar{\imath}s$, force, os, bone, and $b\bar{o}s$, ox or cow, show peculiarities of declension which are best seen when the nouns are given in full. Thus:—

vis, f., force. os, n., bone. bos, c., ox or cow.

Stem Sing.	vī- viri-	oss(i)-	bov-
		Singular.	
Nom. & V. Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.	vis (rare) vim vi	os ossis ossī os osse	bōs bovis bovī bovem bove
N., A. & V. Gen. Dat. & Abl.	vīrium	Plural. ossa ossium ossibus	bovēs boum bōbus <i>or</i> būbus

- 111. Other peculiar forms are as follows:—
- (1.) Senex, m., old person, has a shorter stem in the oblique

cases and in the plural. Thus: gen. senis, dat. senī, acc. senem, etc.

- (2.) Carō, f., flesh, gen. carnis, has genitive plural carnium.
- (3.) *Iūppiter*, m., Jupiter (Father Jove), has in the oblique cases *Iovis*, *Iovī*, *Iovem*, *Iove*.
- (4.) Three nouns have a longer stem in the oblique cases than in the nominative. They are: —

Nom. & Voc. iter, n., road. iecur, n., liver. supellex, f., furniture.

Gen. itineris iecinoris or iecoris supellectilis
Dat. itineri iecinori or iecori supellectili
etc. etc. etc.

NOTE 1. The following monosyllabic nouns are not used in the genitive plural: cor, n., heart; $c\bar{o}s$, f., whetstone; $f\bar{a}x$, f., torch; faex, f., dregs; $l\bar{u}x$, f., light; nex, f., death; $\bar{o}s$, n., mouth; $p\bar{a}x$, f., peace; praes, m., bondsman; $r\bar{o}s$, n., dew; $s\bar{a}l$, m., salt; $s\bar{o}l$, m., sun; $t\bar{u}s$, n., frankincense; vas, m., voucher; $v\bar{e}r$, n., spring.

NOTE 2. $I\bar{u}s$, n., right, and $r\bar{u}s$, n., country, have in the plural only the nominative and accusative cases.

REMARKS ON CASE-FORMS.

- 112. The locative ending of the third declension is -i or -e for the singular, -ibus (as in the ablative) for the plural. Thus: Karthāginī or Karthāgine, at Carthage; Sardibus, at Sardis.
- 113. The accusative singular ends in -im in the following words: —
- a. Always in Greek words, as Daphnis, and in names of rivers, as Tiberis, and in —

 $b\bar{u}ris$, plough-handle. sitis, thirst. cucumis, cucumber. tussis, cough. $r\bar{a}vis$, hoarseness. $v\bar{i}s$, force.

Also in adverbs which were once accusatives, like partim, amussim, etc.

b. Sometimes in -

febris, fever.turris, tower.puppis, stern. $sec\bar{u}ris$, axe.restis, rope. $s\bar{e}mentis$, a sowing.

And rarely in several other words.

a. Besides nouns like aetās, the nouns which have consonant stems in the singular and i- stems in the plural are chiefly the following monosyllables:—

Nom.	Stem	Gen.
arx, f., citadel	arc(i)-	arcis
$d\bar{e}ns$, m., tooth	dent(i)-	dentis
$d\bar{o}s$, f., dowry	$dar{o}t(i)$ -	$m{dar{o}tis}$
$f\bar{o}ns$, m., fountain	font(i)-	fontis
$f\bar{u}r$, m., thief	$f\overline{u}r(i)$ -	fūris
$m\bar{a}s$, m., male	mar(i)-	maris
mōns, m., mountain	mont(i)-	montis
nix, f., snow	niv(i)-	nivis
nox, f., night	noct(i)-	noctis
$p\bar{o}ns$, m., bridge	pont(i)-	pontis
strix, f., screech-owl	strig(i)-	strigi s
urbs, f., city	urb(i)-	urbis

PECULIAR NOUNS.

110. Three nouns, $v\bar{\imath}s$, force, os, bone, and $b\bar{o}s$, ox or cow, show peculiarities of declension which are best seen when the nouns are given in full. Thus:—

vis, f., force. os, n., bone. bos, c., ox or cow.

Sina vi-

Stem Plur	. vi- . viri-	oss(i)-	bov-
		Singular.	
Nom. & V.	vis	os	bōs
Gen.	vis (rare)	ossis	bovis
Dat.		ossī	bovī
Acc.	vīm	os	bovem
Abl.	VΙ	osse	bove
		Plural.	
N., A. & V.	vīrēs	ossa	bovēs
Gen.	v īrium	ossium	boum
Dat. & Abl.	vīribus	ossibus	bōbus or būbus

- 111. Other peculiar forms are as follows: —
- (1.) Senex, m., old person, has a shorter stem in the oblique

cases and in the plural. Thus: gen. senis, dat. senī, acc. senem, etc.

- (2.) Carō, f., flesh, gen. carnis, has genitive plural carnium.
- (3.) Iuppiter, m., Jupiter (Father Jove), has in the oblique cases Iovis, Iovī, Iovem, Iove.
- (4.) Three nouns have a longer stem in the oblique cases than in the nominative. They are: —

Nom. & Voc. iter, n., road. iecur, n., liver. supellex, f., furniture. Gen. itineris iecinoris or iecoris supellectilis

Dat.

itinerī iecinorī or iecorī supellectili

etc.

NOTE 1. The following monosyllabic nouns are not used in the genitive plural: cor, n., heart; cos, f., whetstone; fax, f., torch; faex, f., dregs; lūx, f., light; nex, f., death; os, n., mouth; pax, f., peace; praes, m., bondsman; ros, n., dew; sal, m., salt; sol, m., sun; tus, n., frankincense; vas, m., voucher; ver, n., spring.

NOTE 2. Ius, n., right, and rus, n., country, have in the plural only the nominative and accusative cases.

REMARKS ON CASE-FORMS.

- 112. The locative ending of the third declension is -I or -e for the singular, -ibus (as in the ablative) for the plural. Thus: Karthāqinī or Karthāqine, at Carthage; Sardibus, at Sardis.
- 113. The accusative singular ends in -im in the following words: -
- a. Always in Greek words, as Daphnis, and in names of rivers, as Tiberis, and in -

 $b\bar{u}ris$, plough-handle. cucumis, cucumber.

sitis, thirst. tussis, cough.

 $r\bar{a}vis$, hoarseness.

vīs, force.

Also in adverbs which were once accusatives, like partim, amussim, etc.

b. Sometimes in -

febris, fever. puppis, stern.

turris, tower. secūris, axe.

restis, rope.

sēmentis, a sowing.

And rarely in several other words.

- 114. The ablative singular ends in -I in the following: —
- a. Always in the words which have only -im in the accusative, and in $sec\bar{u}ris$.
 - b. In certain adjectives used as nouns: -

 $aequ\bar{a}lis$, a contemporary. $gent\bar{\imath}lis$, a family connection. $ann\bar{a}lis$, a historical record. $mol\bar{a}ris$, a mill-stone. $aqu\bar{a}lis$, a wash-basin. $pr\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}p\bar{\imath}l\bar{a}ris$, a military officer. $c\bar{o}ns\bar{\imath}l\bar{a}ris$, an ex-consul. $trib\bar{\imath}lis$, a fellow tribesman.

c. In neuters, except the following: -

baccar, a plant; iubar, a ray of light; nectar, nectar; and sometimes (in verse), mare, sea, and rēte, net.

d. Sometimes in the following: -

amnis, river. $f\bar{\imath}nis$, end. ovis, sheep. avis, bird. īgnis, fire. pelvis, basin. axis, axle. imber, shower. sēmentis, sowing. $b\bar{\imath}lis$, bile. mane, morning. sors, lot. classis, fleet. messis, harvest. strigilis, flesh-scraper. clāvis, key. turris, tower. nāvis, ship. febris, fever.

And the following adjectives used as nouns: —

 $adf \bar{\imath} nis$, a connection by marriage. $r\bar{\imath} v\bar{a}lis$, rival. bipennis, two-edged axe. $sapi\bar{e}ns$, philosopher. $c\bar{a}n\bar{a}lis$, water-pipe. $trir\bar{e}mis$, trireme. $famili\bar{a}ris$, friend. $v\bar{o}c\bar{a}lis$, vowel. $n\bar{a}t\bar{a}lis$, birth-day. $aed\bar{\imath} lis$, aedile (rarely).

- 115. The ablative singular ends in -ē in famēs, hunger, and in -e in Sōracte and in most names of towns which end in -e, as Praeneste.
- 116. The genitive plural ends in -um in the following nouns (though they have i- stems):
 - a. Always in -

canis, dog; iuvenis, youth (originally consonant stems). amb $\bar{a}g\bar{e}s$, riddle; volucris, bird.

b. Sometimes in —

apis, bee. $s\bar{e}d\bar{e}s$, seat. $caed\bar{e}s$, bloodshed. $stru\bar{e}s$, pile. $cl\bar{a}d\bar{e}s$, disaster. $subol\bar{e}s$, offspring. $m\bar{e}nsis$, month. $v\bar{a}t\bar{e}s$, bard.

- c. Also in nouns in -tās; as, $c\bar{v}it\bar{a}s$, gen. plur. $c\bar{v}it\bar{a}t\bar{u}m$ or $c\bar{v}it\bar{a}tium$; and rarely in names denoting nationality, in -ās, -ātis, or -īs, -ītis; as, $Arp\bar{v}n\bar{a}s$, $Samn\bar{v}s$.
- 117. The accusative plural in -īs is common with i- stems, but -ēs is also found in all words.
- a. In the nominative plural -Is is very rare. An old form in -eis also occurs in both accusative and nominative.

NOTE. For other old or rare forms see Bücheler's Grundriss.

GENDER.

- 118. (1.) Nouns with the following endings are MASCULINE:—
- -er, -ĕs, -or, -ōs, -ō (except -dō, -gō, and abstracts and collectives in -iō), also -n (except -men).
- (2.) Nouns with the following endings are FEMININE:—
 -ās, -ēs, -is, -ūs, -ys, -s preceded by a consonant, -dō,
 -gō, and abstracts and collectives in -iō.
 - (3.) Nouns with the following endings are NEUTER:—
 -a, -e, -ī, -y, -c, -l, -t, -men, -ar, -ur, -ŭs.
- 119. The most common exceptions to these rules are as follows:—

(1.) Masculine are -

 $\bar{a}s$, a piece of money. $m\bar{e}nsis$, month. pons, bridge. vas. bondsman. orbis, circle. ariēs, ram. amnis, river. pānis, bread. pariēs, wall. collis, hill. unquis, nail. $p\bar{e}s$, foot. ēnsis, sword. $d\bar{e}ns$, tooth. $ord\bar{o}$, order. ignis, fire. $f \bar{o} ns$, spring. *sōl*, sun. lapis, stone. mons, mountain.



Ab.

Саруе

	tigris, c., tiger.	nāis, f., naiad.	chelys, f., lyre.
		Singular.	
N.	tigris	nāis	chelys
G.	tigris (-idos)	nāidos	
D.	tigrī	nāidi	
Ac.	tigrin (-ida)	nāida	chelyn
v.	tigris	nāis	chely
Ab.	tigrī (-ide)	nāide	
		Plural.	
N. &	V. tigres	nāides	
G.	tigrium	nāidum	
D. & .	Ab. tigribus	nāidibus	
Ac.	tigrīs (-idas)	nāidas	
	I	roper Names.	
Ex	amples of the decl	ension of Greek p	roper names are
as fol	lows:—	_	
	m.	f.	m.
N.	Sōcratēs	Dīdō	Simois
G.	Sōcratis (-ī)	Dīdūs (-ōnis)	Simoentis
D.	Sōcratī	Dīdō (-ōnī)	Simoenti
Ac.	Sōcratem (-ēn)	Dīdō (-ōnem)	Simoenta
V.	Sōcratēs (-ē)	Dīdō	Simois
Ab.	Sōcrate	Dīdō (-ōne)	Simoente
	m.	m.	
N.	Саруз	Daphni	s
G.	Capyos	Daphni	dis
D.	Capyi	Daphni	idi
Ac.	Capyn	Daphni	im (-in)
v.	Сару	Daphni	į.
4.1	~		_

Daphnī

Special Forms.

- 125. (1.) Like Simois are declined stems in ant-, ent-, ont-, unt-; as, adamās, gen. adamantis; Xenophōn, gen. Xenophontis; Trapezūs, gen. Trapezuntis, etc.
- (2.) But some in ont- are thoroughly latinized and declined like $Drac\bar{o}$, gen. $Drac\bar{o}nis$. So also $Agamemn\bar{o}n$ or $Agamemn\bar{o}$, but with short o in the stem, Agamemno-nis, etc.
- (3.) Stems in ant-have the Latin form in the nominative sometimes as, $Atl\bar{a}ns$, $eleph\bar{a}ns$; and also have \bar{a} in the vocative as, $Atl\bar{a}$.
- (4.) Neuters in -a have a dative and ablative plural in -īs after the fashion of the second declension; as, $po\bar{e}ma$, dat. and abl. $po\bar{e}mat\bar{i}s$.

FOURTH DECLENSION

126. The fourth declension consists of nouns whose stems end in u-. The nominative singular ends in -us masc. (and fem.), -ū neuter. Thus:—

	frūctus, m., fruit.	cornū, m., horn.
Stem	frūctu-	cornu-
	Sing	ular.
Nom. & Voc.	frūctus	cornū
Gen.	frūctūs	cornūs
Dat.	frūctuī (-ū)	cornū
Acc.	früctum	cornū
Abl.	früctü	cornū
	Plu	ral.
Nom. & Voc.	frūctūs	cornua
Gen.	frūctuum	cornuum
Dat.	frūctibus	cornibus
Acc.	frūctūs	cornua
Abl.	frūctibus	cornibus

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

127. The following nouns are feminine: —

acus, needle.manus, hand.colus, distaff.porticus, gallery.domus, house. $Qu\bar{\imath}nqu\bar{\imath}tr\bar{\imath}s$ (pl.), Feast of $f\bar{\imath}cus$, fig.Minerva. $\bar{I}d\bar{\imath}s$, pl. $\bar{I}des$.tribus, tribe.

Also a few by signification; and rarely arcus, bow; penus, provisions; specus, cave.

a. Secus, sex, is neuter.

CASE-FORMS.

- 128. (1.) Old genitives in -uos and -uis are found in some words; as, senātuos; frūctuis.
- (2.) A genitive in $\bar{\imath}$ -, after the analogy of the second declension, is found in $sen\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$, and in early Latin in a few other words.
 - (3.) A few datives in ū- occur.
- (4.) A contracted genitive plural in -um is also found.
- 129. The following nouns retain the u- of the stem (not weakened to i-)* in the dative and ablative plural.

artus, limb,	dat. and abl. pl.	artubus.
partus, birth,	"	partubus.
portus, harbor,	66	(portubus).
tribus, tribe,	66	tribubus.
$verar{u}$, spit,	"	(verubus).

- a. All but partus have also the form in -ibus, in classical times. With portus and $ver\bar{u}$ that is the commoner form.
- b. Words of two syllables in -cus have more commonly -ubus in the ablative; as, lacus, lacubus.
 - 130. Domus, house, has two stems, domu- and domo-,

 * Cf. 59, and 90.

and is declined as follows (the commoner form in each case is put first):—

domus, f., house.

Stem domu- and domo-

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom. & Voc.	domus	domūs
Gen.	domūs, domī	domuum, domōrum
Dat.	domuī, domō	domibus
Acc.	domum	domōs, domūs
Abl.	domō (domū)	do m ibus

- a. $Dom\bar{\imath}$ is used only as locative, except in Plantus. A locative $domu\bar{\imath}$ also occurs.
- 131. Most names of plants, and colus, distaff, have also forms of the second declension; penus, provisions, has forms in both the second and third declensions.*

FIFTH DECLENSION.

132. The fifth declension consists of the nouns whose stems end in ē-. The nominative singular ends in ē-s. All the nouns are feminine except diēs (common in the singular, masculine in the plural) and merīdiēs (masculine). They are thus declined:—

rēs, thing.		Stem rē-
	Singular.	Plural.
Nom. & Voc.	rēs	rēs
Gen.	rĕī	rērum
Dat.	rĕī	rēbus
Acc.	rem	rēs
Abl.	rē	rēbus

^{*} The fourth declension seems to have been an offshoot from the third. Cf. genitive forms like nominus, from nomen, and senatuos, from senatus. Later, confusion arose between the fourth and the second declensions through their similarity in the nominative singular. Hence forms like senati, domorum.

diēs, day.		Stem diē-
	Singular.	Plural.
Nom. & Voc.	diēs	diēs
Gen.	diēī	diērum
Dat.	diēī	diēbus
Acc.	\mathbf{diem}	diēs
Abl.	diē	diēb us

a. Dies is as a rule feminine only when it denotes duration of time or a fixed day.

CASE-FORMS.

- 133. (1.) Old forms of both genitive and dative singular in $-\bar{e}$ and $-\bar{i}$, and of genitive only in $-\bar{e}$ s, occur, but rarely; as, $fid\bar{e}$, $di\bar{i}$, $rabi\bar{e}s$. $Pl\bar{e}b\bar{i}$ is common as a genitive.
- (2.) Only $r\bar{e}s$ and $di\bar{e}s$ are used in full in the plural. The nominative, accusative, and vocative plural are found in the following:—

 $aci\bar{e}s$, line of battle. $faci\bar{e}s$, face. $seri\bar{e}s$, series. $effigi\bar{e}s$, effigy. $glaci\bar{e}s$, ice. $speci\bar{e}s$, shape, form. $\bar{e}luvi\bar{e}s$, overflowing. $pr\bar{o}geni\bar{e}s$, offspring. $sp\bar{e}s$, hope.

- (3.) The stem vowel is shortened in the genitive and dative singular when a consonant precedes it; as, $r\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$, from $r\bar{e}s$, thing; $fid\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$, from $fid\bar{e}s$, faith; $sp\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$, from $sp\bar{e}s$, hope.
- a. All the nouns of the fifth declension but four $fid\bar{e}s$, $pl\bar{e}b\bar{e}s$,* $r\bar{e}s$, and $sp\bar{e}s$ end in -i $\bar{e}s$, and all nouns in -i $\bar{e}s$ are of this declension, except five of the third declension $abi\bar{e}s$, fir; $ari\bar{e}s$, battering ram; $pari\bar{e}s$, partition wall; $qui\bar{e}s$ and $requi\bar{e}s$, rest.
- b. The nouns in -iēs of the fifth declension (except diēs and merīdiēs) generally have, especially in the genitive and dative singular, and in the plural, corresponding forms in the first declension. Thus, māteria, gen. māteriae, beside māteriēs, gen. māteriēī, etc.†
 - * Less common than the third declension form $pl\bar{e}bs$.
- † These nouns in -1ēs seem to have been developed from the stems in ā-originally. (See *Handb. der Altert.*, vol. ii., B., p. 203, §5.) The other nouns of the fifth declension except perhaps $r\bar{c}s$ were probably originally s-stems of the third declension, like $n\bar{u}b\bar{c}s$. (Cf. 108, a, 109.)

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

- 134. There are four classes of irregular nouns, as follows:—
- (1.) HETEROGENEOUS nouns (heterogenea), or such as have forms of different genders.
- (2.) HETEROCLITES (heteroclita), or nouns which have forms of different declensions.
- (3.) DEFECTIVE nouns ($d\bar{e}fect\bar{i}va$), or such as lack some of their parts.
- (4.) REDUNDANT nouns (abundantia), or such as have more forms than the usual number.
- 135. The commonest heterogeneous nouns are the following:
 - (1.) Masculine in singular, neuter in plural: —

Avernus, a certain

lake, plural Averna.

Tartarus, the lower

regions, " Tartara.
cus. jest. " iocī and ioca.

iocus, jest, "iocī and ioca.
locus, place, "flocī, passages in books; topics."

" \ loca, places.

sībilus, whistling, " sībilī and sībila.

(2.) Feminine in singular, neuter in plural:—
carbasus, sail, plural carbasa.

(3.) Neuter in singular, masculine in plural:—

caelum, heaven, plural caelī.

frēnum, bridle, " frēnī and frēna.

rāstrum, rake, "rāstrī, and more rarely rāstra.

(4.) Neuter in singular, feminine in plural: —

epulum, feast, plural epulae.

balneum, bath, " balneae and balnea.

nūndinum, market day, " nūndinae.

136. Examples of heteroclites are as follows:—

iugerum, n., acre.

vās, n., vessel.

Singular.

Nom. & Acc. iugerum vās Gen. iugerī vāsis, Dat. iugerō vāsī Abl. iugerō and (iugere) vāse

Plural.

Nom. & Acc. iugera vāsa
Gen. iugerum vāsōrum
Dat. & Abl. iugeribus and iugerīs vāsīs

- a. Vesper, evening, has also vespera, acc. vesperum, more rarely vesperam, abl. vespere and vesperā, and as ablative of time (see 424) generally the locative from vesperī. It has no plural.
- b. Requies, rest, has acc. requiem oftener than requietem; abl. requie.

NOTE. The student will remember other examples of heteroclite forms already met under the different declensions.

137. The commonest defective nouns are the following: —

(1.) Indeclinable (indeclinābilia) are —

 $f\overline{a}s$, right. $\overline{i}nstar$, image. $nef\overline{a}s$, wrong. $m\overline{a}ne$, morning. nihil, nothing. $pond\overline{o}$, weight.

- a. The first four are used only in the nominative and accusative, but nihil has a collateral form nihilum, $nihil\bar{\imath}$, $nihil\bar{\imath}$; $m\bar{a}ne$ is used in the nominative, accusative, and ablative. (Cf. 114, d.)
- (2.) Frūgis, of fruit, and diciōnis, of sway, have no nominative.
- (3.) $N\bar{e}m\bar{o}$, no one, has no vocative and no plural, and in classical Latin no genitive and no ablative; these cases are supplied by the pronominal adjective $n\bar{u}llus$.
 - (4.) The following are used only as given: -

•	help (sing.), power (plur.).	turn.	impetus, attack.	fors, chance.
		Singula r.		
Nom.			impetus	fors
Gen.	opis	vicis		
Dat.			$impet\bar{u}$	
Acc.	opem	\mathbf{vicem}	impetum	
Abl.	ope	vice	$impet\bar{u}$	forte
		Plural.		
Nom. &	Acc. opës	vicēs	impetūs	
Gen.	opum		-	
Dat. & .	Abl. opibus	vicibus		

a. Sponte, will, accord, is used only in the ablative singular. So also various nouns of the fourth declension, as admonitū, iūssū, arbitrātū, nātū, etc.

See also under the third declension, 110, and fifth declension, 133.

138. (1.) Proper names, and some other nouns, from their meaning naturally have no plural. The following nouns also lack the plural:—

aethēr, the sky. luēs, plague. caenum, mud. mane, morning. pūbēs, youth. ebur, ivory. $gel\bar{u}$, frost. specimen, example. humus, the ground. $v\bar{e}r$, spring. iubar, radiance. vesper, evening. lāc, milk. vīrus, poison. lētum, death. volgus, crowd. līmus, mud.

And some others which are less common.

- (2.) Abstract nouns are used in the plural as a rule only to denote instances or occasions of the quality, action, etc. See 437, 3.
 - 139. (1.) Names of festivals and games, and several

names of places and books, have no singular; as, Bacchānālia, Kalendae, Būcolica, Athēnae.

(2.) Other common nouns which lack the singular are the following:—

 $\bar{a}cta~(2*)$, records. altāria (3), altar. angūstiae, narrow pass. argūtiae, witticisms. arma (2), weapons. bīgae, a two-horse chariot. cānī, gray hairs. $car{u}nar{a}bula$ (2), $\Big\}$ cradle. dēliciae, darling. dīvitiae, riches. excubiae, watch. exsequiae, funeral rites. exta (2), entrails. exuviae, spoils. $f\bar{a}st\bar{\imath}$, calendar. faucēs (3), jaws. $fid\bar{e}s$ (3), lyre. $grates \dagger$ (3), thanks. indutiae, a truce.

induviae, clothes. īnsidiae, ambuscade. līberī, children. māiōrēs (3), ancestors. $m\bar{a}n\bar{e}s$ (3), shades of the dead. manubiae, spoils of war. minae, threats. moenia (3), walls. $m\bar{u}nia \ddagger (2)$, official duties. nūgae, trifles. nūptiae, a marriage. penātēs (3), household gods. phalerae, trappings. praecordia (2), diaphragm. quadrīgae, team of four horses. reliquiae, remains. scālae. ladder. tenebrae. darkness. virgulta (2), bushes.

140. The following nouns usually differ in meaning in the different numbers:—

Singular.

aedēs, } -is, f., temple, aedis, } -is, f., temple, aqua, f., water, auxilium, n., aid, carcer, m., prison, castrum, n., fort, Plural.

aedēs, -ium, house.

aquae, a watering place. auxilia, auxiliary troops. carcerēs, racecourse barriers. castra, a camp.

- * The number annexed shows the declension, wherever doubt might arise.
 - † Used only in the nominative and accusative.
 - † Classical only in nominative and accusative.

codicillus, m., bit of wood, comitium, n., place of assembly. copia, f., plenty, facultās, f., ability, $f\bar{\imath}nis$, m. and f., end, $fort\bar{u}na$, f., fortune, grātia, f., favor. impedīmentum, n., a hindrance. līttera, f., letter of the alphabet, $l\bar{u}dus$, m., pastime, nātālis, m., birthday, opera, f., work, task, opis (gen.), f., help, pars, f., part,

plaga, f., region, tract, rōstrum, n., beak, prow, sāl, m. and n., salt,

cōdicillī, tablets.
comitia, an assembly for election.
cōpiae, troops, forces.
facultātēs, property.
fīnēs, bounds, territory.
fortūnae, possessions.
grātiae, thanks.
impedīmenta. baggage.

litterae, epistle or literature.

lūdī, public games.

nātālēs, birth, lineage.

operae, workmen.

opēs, -um, means, resources.

partēs, a part played, or

(often)* political party.

plagae, nets, toils.

rōstra, the Rostra.†

salēs, witticisms.

NOTE. Examples of redundant nouns are seen in many of the heterogeneous nouns and heteroclites.

ADJECTIVES.

- 141. Adjectives are declined like nouns, but there are no u-stems ‡ or ē-stems among them. Therefore only the first three declensions are used.
- 142. Adjectives are best divided into two classes for declension: —
- I. Adjectives with o- stems in masculine and neuter, and ā- stems in feminine.
 - * The singular is occasionally so used.
- † A part of the Roman Forum which was adorned with the prows of some war vessels.
- ‡ Unless the rare compounds of manus be counted an exception. An accusative plural in -us is found of anguimanus, once masculine, once feminine, in Lucretius.

II. Adjectives with i- stems or with consonant stems.

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSION.

143. Adjectives of the first class are said to be of the First and Second Declension. They are declined like nouns of these declensions. Thus:—

bonus, good.

	M.	T.	n.	
Stem	bono-	bonā-	bono-	
		Singular.		
Nom.	bonus	bona	bonum	
Gen_{\bullet}	bonī	bonae	bonī	
Dat.	bonō	bonae	bonō	
Acc.	bonum	bonam	bonum	
Voc.	bone	bona	bonum	
Abl.	bonō	bonā	bonō	
		Plural.		
N. & V.	bonī	bonae	bona	
Gen.	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum	
D. & A.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs	
Acc.	bonōs	bonās	bona	
	te	ner, tender.		
Stem	tenero-	tenerā-	tenero-	
		Singular.		
N. & V.	tener	tenera	tenerum	
Gen.	teneri	tenerae	tenerī	
Dat.	tenerō	tenerae	tenerō	
Acc.	tenerum	teneram	tenerum	
Abl.	tenerō	tenerā	${f tenero}$	
Plural.				
N. & V.	tenerī	tenerae	tenera	
Gen.	tenerörum	tenerārum	tener ōrum	
D. & A.	tenerīs	tenerīs	tenerīs	
Acc.	tenerōs	tenerās	tenera	

piger, lazy.

Stem	pigro-	pigrā-	pigro-
		Singular.	
N. & V. Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.	piger pigrī pigrō pigrum pigrō	pigra pigrae pigrae pigram pigrā	pigrum pigrī pigrō pigrum pigrō
	P-8-0	Plural.	P-8-0
N. & V. Gen. D. & A. Acc.	pigrōrum	pigrae pigrārum pigrīs pigrās	pigrá pigrōrum pigrīs pigra

- a. Adjectives in -ius have the full forms in the genitive and vocative singular; as, $r\bar{e}gi\bar{i}$ and $r\bar{e}gie$, from $r\bar{e}gius$.
- 144. In tener and the few adjectives declined like it the e before the r belongs to the stem, as in the case of analogous nouns. (Cf. 97, 2.)
 - a. These adjectives are —

asper, rough.
exter, foreign.
gibber, crook-backed.
lacer, torn.
liber, free.

miser, wretched.
prōsper, prosperous.
satur, full (satiated).
sēmi-fer, half-human.

And the compounds of gero and fero; as, laniger, letifer, etc.

Note. Satur is the only adjective of the second declension having any vowel but e before the final r.

145. Six adjectives in -us and three in -er form the genitive singular in -īus and the dative singular in -ī for all genders. These are —

alius, another. $t\bar{o}tus$, whole.alter, altera, alterum, the other. $n\bar{u}llus$, none. $\bar{u}llus$, any.uter, utra, utrum, which of two. $s\bar{o}lus$, alone. $\bar{u}nus$, one.neuter, neutra, neutrum, neither.

146. They are thus declined in the singular:—

unus, one.				
	M.	F.	N.	
Stem	ūno-	ūnā-	ūno-	
Nom.	ūnus	ūna	ün um	
Gen.	ūnius	ūnīus	ünīus	
Dat.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī	
Acc.	ünum	ünam	ünum	
Voc.	ūne	ūna	ünum	
Abl.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō	
		alius, another.		
Stem	alio-	aliā-	alio-	
Nom.	alius	alia	aliud	
Gen.	alīus	alīus	alīus	
Dat.	aliī	aliī	aliī	
Acc.	alium	aliam	aliud	
Voc.				
Abl.	aliō	aliā	aliō	
		uter, which (of two).		
Stem	utro-	utrā-	utro-	
Nom.	uter	utra	utrum	
Gen.	utrīus	utrī us	utrīus	
Dat.	utrī	utrī	utrī	
Acc.	utrum	utram	utrum	
Voc.				
Abl.	utrō	utrā	utrō	

The plural is regular.

a. So are declined uterque, each; alteruter, one or the other.

CASE-FORMS.

- 147. (1.) The quantity of the i of the genitive singular is common in poetry.
- (2.) The genitive alīus is rare, alterīus being used instead, except in the possessive sense, which is supplied by the adjective aliēnus, belonging to another.

(3.) The regular forms of the genitive and dative singular are occasionally found, especially in early Latin; as, $n\bar{u}llae$ (gen.), (Plaut., Mil., iii., 1, 207); $n\bar{u}ll\bar{o}$ (Cæs., B. G., vi., 13).

THIRD DECLENSION.

- 148. The adjectives of Class II. are called Adjectives of the Third Declension. They are declined exactly like nouns of the third declension, except that the forms properly belonging to i- stems are much more common than in nouns. There is also much less variety in the endings of the nominative singular.
- 149. Adjectives of the third declension may be divided into three classes, according as they have —
- (1.) Three forms in the nominative singular for the three genders.
- (2.) Two forms in the nominative singular, one masculine and feminine, the other neuter.
 - (3.) One form for all three genders.
- 150. Class (1) includes only certain stems in ri. The i is dropped in the nominative singular masculine; a parasitic e is then developed before the r (as in the noun stems under 103, e, and 108, b). The feminine nominative singular ends in -is, the neuter in -e, as in the corresponding nouns. Such adjectives are thus declined:—

ācer, sharp.		Stem ā	cri-
		Singular.	
	M.	F.	N.
Nom. & Voc.	ācer	ācris	ācre
Gen.	ācris	ācris	ācris
Dat. & Abl.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī
Acc.	f acrem	ācrem	ācre
		${\it Plural}.$	
Nom. & Voc.	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
Gen.	ācrium	ācrium	ācrium
Dat. & Abl.	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus
Acc.	ācrēs (-īs)	ācrēs (-īs)	ācria

151. The only adjectives of this class are —

ācer.	celeber.	pedester.	silvester.
alacer.	equester.	puter.	terrester.
campester.	palūster	salüber.	volucer.
celer.*			

And the names of the months September, October, November, December.

- a. These adjectives sometimes have the masculine singular in -is like the feminine. This is especially the case with puter, saluber, and terrester.
- b. On the other hand, the form in -er is sometimes found as feminine in early and late Latin.
 - c. Volucer has volucrum in the genitive plural.
- 152. Class (2) includes all other i- stems, and the comparatives (consonant stems). They are thus declined:—

	mītis, mild.		mītior, milder.
Stem	mīti-		mītiōr-
		Singular.	

	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
N. & V.	. mītis	\mathbf{m} īte	\mathbf{m} itior	mītius
Gen.	$m\bar{i}tis$	\mathbf{m} ītis	mītiō ris	mītiōris
Dat.	mītī	\mathbf{m} ītī	mītiōrī	mītiōrī
Acc.	mitem	\mathbf{m} īte	${f m}$ īti $ar{f o}$ re ${f m}$	mītius
Abl.	mītī	mītī	mītiōre (-ī)	mītiōre (-ī)

Plural.

N. & V.	mītēs	mītia	mītiōrēs	mītiōra
Gen.	mītiu m	mītium	mītiōrum	\mathbf{m} īti $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ ru \mathbf{m}
D. & A.	mītibus	mītibus	mītiōribus	mītiōribus
Acc.	mītēs (-īs)	mītia	mītiōrēs (-īs)	mītiōra

- 153. $Pl\bar{u}s$, more, has in the singular only the forms of the neuter gender. The plural differs from that of other
- * In this adjective the e in the final syllable belongs to the stem, and is retained throughout.

comparatives in having -ium in the gen. plur. Certain forms are wanting. The declension is as follows:—

	pl	plūs, more.		Stem plūr-	
	Singular.	nılar. P		•	
	N.	м. 8	z F .		N.
Nom.	plūs	plū	rēs	plüra	(rarely plūria)
Gen.	plūris	plū	rium	plūriu	ım
Dat.		_	ribus	_	us
Acc.	plūs	plū	rēs (-īs)	plūra	
Voc.					-
Abl.	plūre (rar	$e)$ $\mathbf{pl}\mathbf{ar{u}}$	ribus	plūrib	us
So a	also the plura	d compound	l <i>complūr</i>	ēs, a gre	at many.
154	1. Class (3)	includes	all conso	nant st	ems except the
compa	aratives. I	he <mark>y are th</mark>	us declin	ed: —	
	fēlīx, ha	рру.	pra	esēns,	present.
\mathbf{Stem}	fēlīc-			praesei	nt-
		Sir	ıgula r.		
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F	: .	N.
N., V.	fēlīx	fēlīx	praesēn	ເຮ	praesēns
G.	fēlīcis	fēlīcis	praesen	tis	praesentis
D.	fēlīcī	fēlīcī	praesen	tī	praesentī
Ac.	fēlīcem	fēlīx	praesen	\mathbf{tem}	praesēns;
Ab.	fēlīcī (-e)	fēlīcī (-e)	praesen	te (- ī)	$praesente(\bar{i})$
		P^{i}	lural.		•
N., V.	fēlīcēs	fēlīcia	praesen	ıtēs	praesentia
G.	fēlīcium	fēlīcium	praesen	ıtium	praesentium
D., A.	fēlīcibus	fēlīcibus	praesen	tibus	praesentibus
Ac.	$\mathbf{f\bar{e}l\bar{i}c\bar{e}s(\bar{-}is)}$	fēlīcia	praesen	tēs(-īs)	praesentia
	v	etus, old.	Stem '	veter-	
	Singu	lar.		Plu	ral.
	M. & F.	N.		& F.	N.
	V. vetus	vetus		erēs	vetera
G.	veteris	veteris		erum	veterum
D.	veterī	veterī		eribus	
Ac.	veterem			erēs (-ī	is) vetera



vetere (-ī) vetere (-ī) veteribus veteribus

Ab.

CASE-FORMS.

- 155. (1.) Adjectives, unlike nouns, tend to the forms of the i-declension, as is shown particularly by the ablative singular, and the genitive and accusative plural.
- (2.) The only adjectives which commonly have -e in the ablative singular are the comparatives and —

compos, sharing in.

dēsidis (genitive), indolent.

dīves, rich.

pauper, poor.

particeps, sharing.

praeceps, headlong. $p\bar{u}ber$, youthful. superstes, surviving. supplex, suppliant. vetus, old.*

- a. But most adjectives of one ending (Class 3, above) have -e, when used as nouns. So also most present participles, and participal adjectives like *praesēns*, when used as participles.
- (3.) Only a few adjectives have -um in the genitive plural. The most common are $d\bar{\imath}ves$, compos, inops (poor), praepes (swift of flight), supplex, and compounds of nouns which have -um. Most of these adjectives lack the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural altogether.
 - a. Locuples has locupletum and locupletium.
- (4.) Almost all adjectives can have the accusative plural in -Is as well as -ēs, but -Is is less common in the adjectives with consonant stems than in those with vowel stems.
- (5.) Some adjectives are indeclinable, as $fr\bar{u}g\bar{\iota}$ (really a dative of $[fr\bar{u}x]$) worthy, and $n\bar{e}quam$, worthless; potis, pote, possible, is sometimes used as indeclinable, sometimes regularly declined.
- (6.) A few adjectives are used only in one or two forms, as:—

 $exsp\bar{e}s$, without hope,
 $exl\bar{e}x$, lawless,
 $m\bar{a}ctus$, honored,only nominative.
nominative and accusative.nominative and vocative.

* To these may be added the ablative pernocte, which is the only oblique case used of pernox, lasting all night.

necesse necessum nominative and accusative.

pernox, lasting all night, nominative and ablative.

dull; teres, round; and a few others, lack the genitive.

Hebes, dull; teres, round; and a few others, lack the genitive plural. Dēsidis, indolent, lacks also the nominative singular.

(7.) A few adjectives (heteroclites) have besides the third declension form another in the second declension. The most common are —

auxiliāris and auxiliārius (less common), auxiliary. biiugis (rare) and biiugus, yoked two together. exanimis (rare in plural) and exanimus, lifeless. hilaris and hilarus, cheerful. imbecillis (rare) and imbecillus, weak. inermis and inermus (very rare), unarmed. opulēns and opulentus, rich. prōclīvis and prōclīvos (less common), sloping. singulāris and singulārius, singular. violēns and violentus, violent.

Numeral Adjectives (Numerālia).

- 156. Numeral adjectives are divided into three principal classes: (1.) CARDINALS (cardinālia); (2.) ORDINALS (ōrdinālia); (3.) DISTRIBUTIVES (distribūtīva).
- 157. (1.) Cardinals simply denote the number of things meant and answer the question quot (i. e., how many)? as, $\bar{u}nus$, one; $v\bar{u}gint\bar{v}$, twenty.
- (2.) Ordinals denote order or rank and answer the question quotus (i. e., how many-eth)? as, prīmus, first; quīntus, fifth.
- (3.) Distributives denote an equal distribution among a given number of persons or things, and answer the question $quot\bar{e}n\bar{i}$ (i. e., how many apiece)? as, $b\bar{i}n\bar{i}$, two apiece.
- (4.) For convenience the NUMERAL ADVERBS are given with the adjectives. They answer the question quotiens (i. e., how many times)? as, semel, once; decies, ten times.

158. The numeral adjectives (cardinals, ordinals, and distributives), and also the adverbs, from one to twenty,

	CARDINALS.		ORDINALS.
1	ūnus, -a, -um	one	prīmus
2	duo, -æ, -o	two	secundus
	trēs, -ia	three	tertius
4	quattuor	four	quārtus
	quīnque	five	quintus
6	sex	six	sextus
7	septem	seven	septimus
8	octō	eight	octāvus
9	novem	nine	nōnus
10	decem	ten	decimus
11	$\bar{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{c}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{m}$	eleven	ūndeci mus
12	duodecim	twelve	duodecimus
1 3	tredecim	thirteen	tertius decimus
14	quattuordecim	fourteen	quārtus decimus
15	quīndecim	fifteen	quintus decimus
16	$s\bar{e}decim$	sixteen	sextus decimus
17	septendecim	${\it seventeen}$	septimus decimus
18	duodēvīgintī	eighteen	duodēvīcēsimus
19	ūnd ēvīgintī	nineteen	ūndēvīcēsi mus
20	vīgintī	twenty	{ vīcēsimus } { vīgēsimus }
21	vīgintī ūnus) ūnus et vīgintī)	twenty-one	{ vīcēsimus prīmus } { ūnus et vīgēsimus }
22	vīgintī duo duō et vīgintī	twenty-two	vīcēsimus alter alter et vīcēsimus duo et vīcēsimus
28	duodētrīgintā	twenty-eight	duodētrīcēsimus
29	undētrīgintā) vīgintī novem }	twenty-nine	ūndētrīcēsimus

with examples of the higher numbers, are given in the following table, together with the Roman signs for them.

DISTRIBUTIVES	. ADVERBS.	ROMAN SIGNS.
singulī	semel	I.
bīnī	bis	II.
ternī	ter	III.
quaternī	quater	IIII or IV.
quīnī	quīnquiēs	v.
sēnī	sexiēs	VI.
septēnī	septiēs	VII.
octōnī	octiēs	VIII.
novēnī	noviēs	VIIII or IX.
dēnī	deciēs	X.
ũndēnī	ūndeciē s	XI.
duodēnī	d uodeci ēs	XII.
ternī dēnī	ter deciēs	XIII.
quaternī dēnī	quater deciēs	XIIII or XIV.
quīnī dēnī	{ quīnquiēs deciēs } quīndeciēs	XV.
sēni dēnī	sexiēs deciēs }	XVI.
septēnī dēnī	septiēs deciēs	XVII.
duodēvīcēnī doctonī dēnī	octiēs deciēs	XVIII.
{ ūndēvīcēnī } { novēnī dēnī }	noviēs deciēs	XVIIII or XIX.
vīcēnī	vīciēs	XX.
vīcēnī singulī	{ vīciēs semel } { semel et vīciēs }	XXI.
vicēnī bīnī	{ vīciēs bis } dis et vīciēs }	XXII.
duodētrīcēnī	duodētrīciēs	XXVIII.
ü ndētrīcēnī	ündētrīciēs	XXVIIII or XXIX
underricem	underrides	AA VIIII UF AAIA

	CARDINALS.		ORDINALS.
30	trīgintā	<i>t.h.n.</i> **********	trīcēsimus) trīgēsimus)
40	quadrāgintā	forty	quadrāgēsimus
50	quīnquāgintā	fifty	quīnquāgēsimus
60	sexāgintā	sixty	sexāgēsimus
70	septuāgint ā	seventy	septuāgēsimus
80	octōgint ā	eighty	octōgēsimus
90	nōnāgintā	ninety	nōnāgēsimus
	ūndēcentum)		
99	(nonaginta no-	ninety-nine	ūndēcentēsimus
100	centum	one hundred	centēsimus
101	centum et ūnus)	hundred and	centēsimus et ūnus
101	centum unus	one (centēsimus ūnus
102	centum et duo)	hundred and	centēsimus et alter
	centum duo	two	centēsimus alter
200	ducenti, -ae, -a	two hundred	ducentēsimus
	trecentī, -ae, -a	three hundred	trecentēsimus
40 0	quadringentī,		
	-ae, -a	four hundred	quadringentēsimus
500	quingenti, -ae, -a	five hundred	quīngentēsimus
600	sēscentī, -ae, -a	six hundred	sēscentēsimus
700	septingentī, -ae, -a	seven hundred	septingentēsimus
	octingentī, -ae, -a	eight hundred	octingentēsimus
900	nöngenti, -ae, -a	nine hundred	nõngentēsimus
1,000		$one \ thousand$	mīllēsi mus
	duo mīlia	$two\ thousand$	bis mīllēsimus
100,000	centum mīlia	one hundred	
		thous and	centies mīllesimus
1,000,000	deciēs centēna (or		deciēs centiēs mīl-
	centum) mīlia	one million	lēsimus
2,000,000	vīcies centena (or		vīciēs centiēs mīl-
	centum) mīlia	two million	lēsimus
3,000,000	trīciēs centum		trīciēs centiēs mil-
	mīlia	three million	lēsimus

NUMERALS.

DISTRIBUTIVES.	ADVERBS.	ROMAN SIGNS.
trīcēnī	trīciēs	XXX.
quadrāgēnī quīnquāgēnī sexāgēnī septuāgēnī octōgēnī nōnāgēnī	quadrāgiēs quinquāgiēs sexāgiēs septuāgiēs octōgiēs nonāgiēs	XXXX or XL. L. LX. LXX. LXXX. LXXXX or XC.
undēcentēnī	ūndēcentiēs	IC.
centēnī	centiës { centiës et semel } } centiës semel	C.
centēnī singulī	centies semel	CI.
centēnī bīnī	centiēs et bis) centiēs bis	CII.
ducēnī	ducenties	CC.
trecēnī	trecentiēs	CCC.
quadringent	quadringentiës	CCCC or CD.
quingëni	quingenties	D or IO.
sēscēnī	sēscentiēs	DC or IOC.
septingēnī	septingenties	DCC or IOCC.
octingēnī	octingenties	DCCC or IOCCC.
nōngēnī	nongenties	DCCCC or IOCCCC.
singula mīlia	mīlliēs	M or CIO.
bīna mīlia	bis mīlliēs	MM or CIOCIO.
centēna mīlia deciēs centēna	centies mīlies	CCCIOOO.
mīlia vīciēs centēna	deciēs centiēs mīliēs	• CCCCIDDDD•
mīlia.	vīciēs centies mīlies	cccippoccccippo.
trīciēs centēna		***************************************
		cccioooocccioooo.

- 159. The cardinals from quattuor to centum, also mille, are indeclinable. The cardinals for hundreds, and the distributives, are declined like the plural of bonus. The ordinals are declined like bonus in both numbers. Unus, duo, trēs, and milia (pl.) are also declined.
- 160. $\bar{U}nus$ has been declined in 146. $Tr\bar{e}s$ and $m\bar{l}lia$ are declined like the plural of regular adjectives of the third declension. Duo is thus declined:—

	M.	F.	N.
N. & V.	duo	duae	duo
G.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum
D. & Ab.	duōbus	duāb us	duōb us
Ac.	duōs or duo	duās	duo

- a. The shorter form of the genitive, $du\bar{u}m$, is used especially in compounds like $du\bar{u}mvir\bar{\imath}$, and when joined with $m\bar{\imath}lium$.
- b. Like duo is declined $amb\bar{o}$, both, except that the final o is long. They are remnants of the dual number. (See 86, a.)
- 161. The plural of $\bar{u}nus$ is used with nouns which have no singular or a different meaning in the singular; as, $\bar{u}nae\ n\bar{u}ptiae$, one wedding; $\bar{u}na\ castra$, one camp. To denote more than one with such nouns the distributives * are used; as, $b\bar{v}na\ castra$, two camps.
- a. The plural of $\bar{u}nus$ is also used with nouns denoting several things considered as one whole; as, $\bar{u}na$ vest $\bar{v}menta$, one suit of clothes; and in the meaning "alone" or "the same;" as, $\bar{u}n\bar{v}$ Ub \bar{v} , the Ubii alone; $\bar{u}n\bar{v}s$ m $\bar{v}ribus$ v $\bar{v}vere$, to live according to the same habits (as some one else).
- b. The numbers from twelve to nineteen are sometimes expressed by two numbers, the greater of which usually precedes with et; as, decem et trēs, etc.; or without et; as, decem novem.
- c. From twenty to one hundred the smaller number with et is put first, or the larger number without et; as, $\bar{u}nus$ et $v\bar{v}gint\bar{v}$ or $v\bar{v}gint\bar{v}$ $\bar{u}nus$. Ordinals, however, omit et when the smaller number precedes and sometimes take it when the larger pre-

^{*} Trīnī is used for ternī in such cases.

cedes; as, tertius decimus, and decimus tertius or decimus et tertius. The adverbs may also take et when the larger number precedes; as, vīciēs et ter as well as ter et vīciēs and vīciēs ter.

- d. Instead of prīmus and secundus, prior and alter are used when only two are spoken of. Alter is otherwise often used for secundus; and, in the compound numbers, ūnus and alter are often used for prīmus and secundus; as, ūnus et vīcēsimus, alter et trīgēsimus.
- e. Sixty-eight, sixty-nine, and ninety-eight, are expressed by addition only; the other eights and nines generally by subtraction only, except that twenty-eight, twenty-nine, and thirty-nine, as well as some of the distributives and adverbs, have both forms. Among ordinals seventy-eight, seventy-nine, eighty-eight, and eighty-nine have only the forms by addition.
- f. Above one hundred the larger number precedes with or without et; as, $centum\ et\ \bar{u}nus$ or $centum\ unus$. Et is never used more than once, and then after the first number; as, $trecent\bar{\iota}\ et$ $sex\bar{u}gint\bar{u}\ sex$. Numeral adverbs are to be added together when the larger precedes, but multiplied together when the smaller precedes. Thus, while $centi\bar{e}s\ deci\bar{e}s$ means a hundred and ten times, $deci\bar{e}s\ centi\bar{e}s$ means ten times a hundred times, i. e., a thousand times.
- g. $M\overline{\imath}lle$ is generally used as an adjective, but in the nominative and accusative it also occurs as a noun; $m\overline{\imath}lia$ is a noun, and may be used with a genitive. Thus: $m\overline{\imath}lle$ homines and duo $m\overline{\imath}lia$ hominum.
- h. Thousands are expressed by prefixing the cardinal numbers to $m\bar{\imath}lia$, millions by further prefixing a numeral adverb. Thus: $decem\ m\bar{\imath}lia=10,000$.

 $ducent\bar{a} \ m\bar{\imath}lia = 200,000.$

 $tr\bar{c}ci\bar{e}s$ centum $m\bar{c}lia = 3,000,000$ (i. e., thirty times 100,000).

- i. The year and the hour are expressed by ordinals. Thus: $h\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ septim \bar{a} , at the seventh hour; annus quingentesimus tricesimus primus, the year five hundred and thirty-one.
- k. Fractions are expressed by ordinals with pars, a part. Thus, $\frac{1}{3}$ = tertia pars. One half is generally, however, expressed



by dimidia pars, or dimidium and a genitive. Also, fractions whose numerator is one less than the denominator are expressed by cardinals with $part\bar{e}s$. Thus: $\frac{2}{3} = duae \ part\bar{e}s$, $\frac{2}{4} = tr\bar{e}s \ part\bar{e}s$, etc.

Note. For various derivative adjectives expressing numerical relations see 286.

162. (1.) The Romans represented numbers by letters; as, I=1, V=5, X=10.

NOTE. In several cases these letters grew out of early forms discarded from the alphabet as we have it. Thus, the old aspirates, \odot , \odot , ∇ , were used for 100, 1000, and 50 respectively, and developed into \subset , \Box , and \bot . Then five hundred (half one thousand) was denoted by \Box . For these were then substituted \Box , \Box , \Box , but for \Box and \Box , \Box are often written.

- (2.) When a letter is repeated, the number is equal to the value of the letter multiplied by the number of times it occurs. Thus, $II = 2 \times 1$, or 2; $XXX = 10 \times 3$, or 30; $CCCC = 100 \times 4$, or 400. V and L are not thus repeated.
- (3.) When a letter of smaller value is placed before one of larger value, its value is subtracted from the larger value; placed after, it is added to the larger value; as:—

IV four, V five, VI six.

IX nine, X ten, XI eleven.

XL forty, L fifty, LX sixty.

XC ninety, C hundred, CX hundred and ten.

a. Annexing O to IO multiplies by ten. Thus:—

$$IO = 500$$
; $IOO = 5,000$; $IOOO = 50,000$.

b. Prefixing C and annexing \Im to CI \Im also multiplies by ten. Thus: —

 ${\rm CIO} = 1000\;;\;\; {\rm CCIOO} = 10,000\;;\;\; {\rm CCCIOOO} = 100,000.$

c. Hundreds of thousands are represented by repeating CCCIOOO. Thus:—

CCCIDDCCCIDDCCCIDDD=300,000.

d. Sometimes thousands are expressed by a straight line over the numeral letters. Thus:—

$$\bar{X} = 10,000$$
; $\bar{X}L = 40,000$.

Comparison of Adjectives (Comparātio).

- 163. (1.) The COMPARISON of an adjective is the change of its form to express its quality in different degrees.
- (2.) There are three degrees of comparison, the Positive (gradus positivus), the comparative (gradus comparātīvus), and the superlatīve (gradus superlātīvus).
- 164. (1.) The POSITIVE simply denotes a quality, without reference to other degrees of the same quality; as, altus, high; mītis, mild.
- (2.) The COMPARATIVE denotes that a quality exists in one of two instances to a greater degree than in the other; as, altior, higher; mitior, milder.
- (3.) The SUPERLATIVE denotes that a quality exists in one of several (or all possible) instances to a greater degree than in any other; as, altissimus, highest; mītissimus, mildest.
- a. The comparative is also used elliptically where we use "too" or "rather;" as, $v\bar{\imath}vit$ $l\bar{\imath}berius$, he lives too freely or rather freely.
- b. The superlative often indicates a high degree of a quality without direct comparison with other objects; as, amīcus cārissimus, a very dear friend.
- c. The superlative with quam denotes that the quality exists in the highest possible degree; as, quam $m\bar{a}ximus$, as great as possible.
- d. Degrees of a quality less than the positive may be denoted by minus, less, and $minim\bar{e}$, least, prefixed to the positive, as in English.
- 165. The comparative is formed by adding ior (m. and f.), ius (n.), to the stem of an adjective; in the case of the vowel stems the stem vowel is dropped. The superlative is formed by adding in the same way issimus, issima, issimum. Thus:—

Positive	Stem	Comparative	Superlative
altus	alto-	altior	altissimus
mītis	mīti-	\mathbf{m} ītio \mathbf{r}	mītissimus
fēlīx	fēlīc-	fēlīcior	fēlīcissimus

Irregular Comparison.

166. Adjectives in -er form the comparative regularly, but add -rimus to the positive to form the superlative. Thus:—

ācer ācri- ācrior ācerrimus

a. So vetus has as superlative veterrimus.

167. Six adjectives in -lis form their superlative by adding -limus to the stem without the stem vowel. Thus:—

facilior	facillimus
difficilior	difficillimus
gracilior	gracillimus
humilio r	humillimus
similior	simillimus
dissimilior	dissimillimus
	difficilior gracilior humilior similior

- a. Imbecillus (-is) has also sometimes imbecillimus.
- 168. (1.) Five adjectives in ficus (cf. faciō) derive their comparatives and superlatives from supposed forms in ficēns. Thus:—

beneficus, kind beneficentior beneficentissimus

- a. So honorificus, honorable, māgnificus, splendid, mūnificus, liberal, and maleficus, hurtful, except that maleficus has no comparative.
- (2.) So adjectives in -dīcēns (from $d\bar{\imath}c\bar{o}$) and -volēns (from $vol\bar{o}$), though compared regularly, have more commonly a positive form in -dīcus and -volus. Thus: maledicus (maledī-
- cēns), slanderous maledīcentior maledīcentissimus benevolus (benevo
 - lens), well-wishing benevolentior benevolentissimus

169. The following adjectives show various irregularities of comparison:—

bonus, good	melior	optimus
malus, bad	pēior	pessimus
māgnus, great	māior	māximus
parvus, small	minor	minimus
multus, much	plūs*	plūrimus
dexter, right, skillful	dexterior	dextimus
nēquam, worthless	nēquior	nēquissimu s
frūgi, worthy	frūgālior	frūgālissimus

Note. The superlative suffix mo-seems to have been the earliest. This was then combined with the suffix to-, so- (see 255), making-tumus, -sumus (-timus, -simus), which are found assimilated as -limus, -rimus. (See above, 166, 167). The common ending -issimus either grew from adding -simus to comparatives, or was formed in some way after the pattern of the earlier ending -mus. See Iwan Müller, Handbuch der Altertumswiss., ii., B., p. 220.

Defective Comparison.

170. (1.) The following adjectives are formed from stems of prepositions, and are seldom or never used in the positive:—

cis, citrā dē	[citer]	citerior, hither deterior, worse	citimus dēterrimus
in, intrā		interior, inner	intimus
prae, prō		prior, former	prīmus
prope		propior, nearer	proximus
ülträ	[ülter]	ulterior, farther	ül timus

(2.) Four others are used, in many forms of the positives, though not classical in the nominative singular masculine; namely:—

ex, extră	[exterus] (exter)	exterior, outer	extrēmus extimus
infrā	[inferus] (infer)	înferior, inner	infimus
post	[posterus]	posterior, hinder	postrēmus
super, supr	ā [superus]	superior, upper	suprēmus

^{*} Only neuter in singular. (See 153.)

(3.) The following two have no positive: —

ōcior, swifter potior, preferable

ōcissimus potissimus

171. The following adjectives have no comparative: —

bellus, fine.

invītus, unwilling.

caesius, bluish gray. falsus, false.

novos, new.
pius, filial.
sacer, sacred.
vafer, crafty.

fīdus, faithful.

inclutus, renowned.

invictus, invincible.

vetus, old.

172. (1.) The following have no superlative:—

adulēscēns, young.

pronus, bending forward.

agrestis, rustic. alacer, lively.

propīnquus, near. salūtāris, salutary.

caecus, blind.

diūturnus, lasting.

exīlis, thin.

satur, full. sēgnis, slow. silvestris, woody.

 $\bar{i}nf\bar{i}n\bar{i}tus$, unlimited.

sinister, left. supīnus, lying on the back.

ingēns, great.
ieiūnus, fasting.

tempestīvos, seasonable.

surdus, deaf.

longīnquus, distant.
opīmus, rich.
prōclīvis, sloping.

teres, round.
vīcīnus, neighboring.

With many in -ālis, -īlis, -ilis, and -bilis, and a few other less common adjectives.

- (2.) Iuvenis, young, compar. $i\bar{u}nior$, and senex, old, compar. senior, have the superlative supplied by minimus $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ and $m\bar{a}ximus$ $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}$, respectively.
- 173. The comparative and superlative may also be formed by prefixing to the positive the adverbs magis, more, and $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$, most, as in English. Thus: $id\bar{o}neus$, fit, magis $id\bar{o}neus$, $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$ $id\bar{o}neus$.
- a. This method of comparison is common with adjectives ending in -icus, -idus-, -ulus, -undus, -imus, -īnus, -ōrus, -īvos, -us pure (except -uus), and some others.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

- 174. Adverbs are formed from adjectives of the first and second declension generally by substituting $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ for the stem vowel; from adjectives of the third declension, and occasionally from the others, by adding -ter to the stem, before which $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ and \mathbf{o} are weakened to i. Thus: $d\bar{u}rus$, $d\bar{u}r\bar{e}$; $\bar{a}cer$, $\bar{a}criter$; $f\bar{\imath}rmus$, $f\bar{\imath}rmiter$.*
- a. The final -e is short in bene, well; male, ill; inferne, below; superne, above; and saepe, often. (Cf. 46, a, 2.)
- b. Stems in t- retain, of course, only one t in the adverb; as, prūdens, prūdenter; sollers, sollerter.

Audāx has audācter, and less commonly audāciter.

- c. Facilis, easy, has facile \dagger ; difficilis, hard, difficulter; and $n\bar{e}quam$, worthless, $n\bar{e}quiter$.
- 175. Only the adverbs thus formed from adjectives are as a rule compared. The comparative is the neuter accusative singular of the comparative of the adjective; the superlative is the superlative of the adjective with ē substituted for the stem vowel. If the adjective is irregular the adverb shows similar irregularity. Thus:—

dūrē, hard dūrius dūrissimē ācriter, sharply ācrius ācerrimē audācter, boldly audācius audācissimē

So also male, ill pēius pessimē parvē, little minus minimē

apertē, openly magis apertē māximē apertē, etc.

176. A few adverbs thus compared have no adjectives in use. Thus:—

diū, long diūtius diūtissimē saepe, often saepius saepissimē

^{*} These adjectives of the second declension generally also have adverbs in -ē; as, fīrmē; but alius and violentus have only aliter and violenter.

t Really neuter accusative of the adjective. (Cf. 557, a, note.)

a. Two slightly irregular forms are —

bene, well (from bonus) melius optimē

— magis (comp.), more (from māgnus) maximē

Note. Other adverbs are not compared, and will be treated later. (See 187, 292, 293, and 557.)

PRONOUNS.

177. Pronouns include the following classes:—

- (1.) PERSONALS ($pr\bar{o}n\bar{o}mina\ pers\bar{o}n\bar{a}lia$): as, $eg\bar{o}$, I; $t\bar{u}$, thou; including the REFLEXIVE ($reflex\bar{i}vum$), $su\bar{i}$, of himself, etc.
- (2.) DEMONSTRATIVES $(d\bar{e}m\bar{o}nstr\bar{a}t\bar{i}va)$: as, is, he, that; $h\bar{i}c$, this.
- (3.) Intensives (intensiva): as, ipse, self; idem, the same.
 - (4.) RELATIVES $(rel\bar{a}t\bar{i}va)$: as, $qu\bar{i}$, who.
 - (5.) Interrogatives (interrogativa): as, quis, who?
- (6.) Indefinites ($ind\bar{e}f\bar{i}n\bar{i}ta$): as, aliquis, some one or other; $qu\bar{i}dam$, some (particular) one.
- (7.) Possessives (possessiva): as, meus, my; cūius, whose?
- (8.) Patrials (patriālia): as, nostrās, of our country.

Personals.

178. The personal pronouns are thus declined: —

Singular.

 Nom. egŏ, I.
 tū, thou, you.

 Gen. meī, of me.
 tuī, of thee, you.

 Dat. mihǐ, to me.
 tibǐ, to thee, you.

 Acc. mē, me.
 tē, thee, you.

 Voc.
 tū, thou, you.

Abl. mē, with or by me. tē, with or by thee, you.

Plural.

Nom. nos, we. vos, ye, you.

Gen. nostrum,* or nostrī, vestrum, or vestrī,

of us. of you.

Dat. nobis, to us. vobis, to you.

Acc. nōs, us. vōs, you. vōs, ye, you.

Abl. nobis, with or by us. vobis, with or by you.

179. The reflexive pronoun is the same in both numbers and in all genders. Thus:—

Nom.

Gen. suī, of himself, herself, itself, themselves.

Dat. sibi, to himself, etc.

Acc. sē (sēsē), himself, etc.

Voc. ----

Abl. sē (sēsē), with or by himself, etc.

- a. The personal pronoun of the third person when not reflexive is supplied by the demonstratives, is, ea, id, and (more emphatic) hic, haec, hoc, or ille, illa, illud. (See 180, below.)
- b. All the forms of the personal and reflexive pronouns, except $t\bar{u}$ and the plural genitives, sometimes add the suffix -met for greater emphasis. Thus: $eg\check{o}met$, $v\bar{o}smet$, $s\bar{e}met$.
- c. $T\bar{u}$ has an emphatic form $t\bar{u}te$, and in old Latin $t\bar{e}t\bar{e}$ is used as more emphatic for $t\bar{e}$.
- d. $M\bar{\imath}$ is old and poetic for $mih\bar{\imath}$. $M\bar{e}pte$ and $m\bar{e}d$ for $m\bar{e}$, $t\bar{e}d$ for $t\bar{e}$, mis for $me\bar{\imath}$, and tis for $tu\bar{\imath}$, occur in the comic poets.

Note. The personal and reflexive pronouns, with the intensive ipse, are the only pronouns in the strict sense (i. e., words used instead of nouns). The possessives and patrials are really adjectives, and the others are used as adjectives as well as pronouns.

DEMONSTRATIVES.

180. The demonstrative pronouns are thus declined:—

* Nostrum and vestrum are mostly confined to the partitive use (see Syntax, 354); nostri and vestri are used for other relations.

is, he, that.

Singular.

	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	is	ea.	id
Gen.	ēius	ēius	ēius
Dat.	eī	eī	eī
Acc.	eum	eam	id
Abl.	еō	eā	бө

Plural.

Nom.	eī (iī)	еае	еа
Gen.	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
D. & A.	eīs (iīs)	eīs (iīs)	eīs (iīs)
Acc.	eōs	eās	ea.

hic, this.

Singular.

Nom.	hĭc	haec	hỗc
Gen.	hūius	hūius	hūius
Dat.	huic	huic	huic
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hŏc
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc

Plural.

Nom.	hī	hae	haec
Gen.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum
D. & A.	hīs	hīs	hīs
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec

iste, this, that.

Singular.

Nom.	iste	ista	istud
Gen.	istīus	istīus	istīu s
Dat.	istī	istī	istī
Acc.	istum	istam	istud
Abl.	istō	istā.	istō

P	lura	7

Nom.	istī	istae	ista
Gen.	istōrum	istārum	istōrum
D. & A.	istīs	istīs	istīs
Acc.	istōs	istās	ista

ille, that.

Singular.

Nom.	ille	illa.	illud
Gen.	illīus	illīus	illīus
Dat.	illī	illī	illī
Acc.	illum	illa m	illud
Abl.	illō	illā.	illō

Plural.

Nom.	illī	illae	illa
Gen.	ill ōrum	illā rum	illōru m
D. & A.	illīs	illīs	illīs
Acc.	illös	illās	illa

- a. The old form of ille was ollus, and some cases from that form occur. Genitives and datives after the analogy of the regular forms in the first and second declensions are also found; as, illae for illīus and illī, eae for eī, hae for huic, etc. Iibus, ibus, occur for eīs; and, as fem., eābus. In early Latin are found as nominative plural, eeis, ieis, eis, ē, heis, hīs, heisce, hīsce.
- b. The interjection ecce, lo! is compounded with ille, iste, and is in colloquial language; producing eccillud, eccistam, ecca, eccum, eccos, etc.
- c. An intensive suffix -ce is added to various forms of the demonstratives, producing forms like $h\bar{u}iusce$, hance, $h\bar{o}runce$, illāce, istōsce, $\bar{u}isce$.
- d. When the interrogative ne is attached we have forms like $h\bar{i}cine$, haecine, illaecine, etc.
- e. Sometimes the e from -ce is dropped, producing from iste the following forms:—

Singular.			Plural.			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	istīc	istaec	istīc <i>or</i> istūc		istaec	
Ac.	istunc	istanc	istõc or istūc			istaec
Ab.	istōc	istāc	istōc			

Similar forms occur for ille; and horunc, harunc from hic.

f. The genitive $mod\bar{\imath}$ is combined with the genitive of the demonstratives to indicate of this or that kind. Thus: $h\bar{u}ius-mod\bar{\imath}$ or $h\bar{u}iuscemod\bar{\imath}$, of this kind; $\bar{e}iusmod\bar{\imath}$, of such a kind, that kind, etc.

NOTE. It will be seen that ille and iste are alike in their declensions, that $h\bar{b}c$ differs from them only in having the C of the suffix -Ce in certain forms, and that is differs only in the nominative singular masculine and neuter, and the accusative singular neuter.

Uses of the Demonstratives.

- 181. (1.) Hīc, this, is used to denote that which is near the speaker in thought, space, or time, or in a written or spoken sentence, and is sometimes called the demonstrative of the first person.
- (2.) Ille, that, is used to denote that which is far from the speaker, and is sometimes called the demonstrative of the third person.
- (3.) Iste, this, that, denotes that which is too far from the speaker for $h\bar{i}c$ and too near for ille, often marking that which is near, or, which concerns, the person addressed. It is therefore sometimes called the demonstrative of the second person. It frequently refers to a point under discussion between two persons, or to an opponent in argument, especially in law matters, and therefore sometimes implies contempt.
- (4.) When $h\bar{i}c$ and ille are used to refer to two things in the same passage, $h\bar{i}c$ more commonly refers to the thing last mentioned, and ille to the one first mentioned; but if the one first mentioned is more important (i. e., nearer the thought of the speaker), $h\bar{i}c$ refers to that, and ille refers to the other.

(5.) The following examples will make these distinctions clearer:—

 $Di\bar{u}tius$ in hac $v\bar{\iota}t\bar{u}$ esse $n\bar{o}n$ possum, I cannot stay longer in this life.

Haec nostra studia; ista tua studia, these (are) our pursuits, those your pursuits.

Egő enim istūc ipsum vereor $n\bar{e}$ malum sit, $n\bar{o}n$ dīcō carēre sēnsū sed carendum esse, for I am afraid that this very thing is an evil; I do not mean the being without sensation itself but the necessity of being so (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 12, 26).

a. Q. Catulus, non antiquo illo more, sed hoc nostro eruditus, Quintus Catulus trained not in that old fashioned style, but in this of ours.

Ignāvia corpus hebetat, labor fīrmat; illa mātūrat senectūtem, hīc longam adulēscentiam reddit, inactivity dulls the physical forces, work strengthens them; the one hastens old age, the other prolongs youth.

Melior est certa $p\bar{a}x$ quam $sp\bar{e}r\bar{a}ta$ victoria; haec in $tu\bar{a}$, illa in $de\bar{o}rum$ $man\bar{u}$ est, certain peace is better than victory hoped for; the peace is in your hands, the victory in the hands of the gods.

For the special uses of the demonstratives see Syntax, 450.

INTENSIVES.

182. The intensive pronouns are thus declined: —

ipse, self. Singular. N. N. & V. ipse ipsa ipsum Gen. ipsīus ipsīus ipsīus Dat. ipsī ipsī ipsī Acc. ipsum ipsam ipsum Abl. ipsā ipsō ipsō Plural. N. & V. ipsī ipsae ipsa Gen. ipsōrum ipsārum ipsõrum D. & A. ipsīs ipsīs ipsīs Acc. ipsōs ipsās ipsa

idem, the same.

Singular.

N. & V.	īdem	eadem	idem
Gen.	ēiusdem	ēiusdem	ēiusdem
Dat.	$e\bar{i}dem$	$e\bar{i}dem$	$e\bar{i}dem$
Acc.	\mathbf{eundem}	eandem	idem
Abl.	$e\bar{o}dem$	eādem	$e\bar{o}dem$

Plural.

N. & V. Gen.	eīdem (iīdem) eōrundem	eaedem eārundem	eadem eōrundem
	eīsdem	eīsdem	eīsdem
	(iisdem)	(iīsdem)	(iīsdem)
Acc.	$e\bar{o}sdem$	eāsdem	eadem

a. Isdem and idem occur as nominative plural masculine, and other rare forms are occasionally met. See Buecheler's Grundriss.

NOTE. It will be seen that ipse is declined like iste and ille except in the nominative and accusative singular neuter, and in having a vocative. Idem is formed from is with the demonstrative suffix -dem.

RELATIVES, INTERROGATIVES, AND INDEFINITES.

183. The relative $qu\bar{\imath}$, who, the interrogative quis $(qu\bar{\imath})$, who, and the indefinite quis $(qu\bar{\imath})$, any one, are formed from the same stem, and most of their forms are the same. The indefinite quis occurs chiefly with the particles $s\bar{\imath}$, nisi, $n\bar{e}$, num; otherwise the compound aliquis takes its place.

184. The relative qui, the interrogative quis, and the indefinite aliquis are thus declined:—

qui, who.

Singular. N. Nom. quī quis (qui) quae quid (quod) quae quod Gen. cūius cūius cūius cūius cūius cūius Dat. cui cui cui cui cui cui Acc. quem quam quod quem quam quid (quod) Abl. quō (quī) quā (quī) quō (quī) quō (quī) quā (quī) quō (quī)

quis, who?

Plural.

	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	qui	quae	quae
\mathbf{Gen} .	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
D. & A.	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quōs	quãs	quae

a. The indefinite quis is declined just like the interrogative.

aliquis, any, some.

Singular.

		•	
	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	aliquis (aliqui)	aliqua	aliquid (aliquod)
Gen.	alicūius	alicūius	alicūius
Dat.	alicui	alicui	alicui
Acc.	aliquem	aliquam	aliquid (aliquod)
Abl.	aliquō	aliquā	aliquō

Plural.

Nom.	aliquī	aliquae	aliqua
Gen.	aliq uō rum	aliquārum	aliquōrum
D. & A.	aliquibus	aliquibus	aliquibus
Acc.	aliquõs	aliquās	aliqua

- b. In the interrogative and indefinite pronouns the forms quis, quid, aliquis, aliquid, are used substantively, the forms quī, quod, aliquī, aliquod, adjectively.
- c. The ablative form $qu\bar{\imath}$ is also occasionally found as a plural. Its chief use is as an ablative of manner (see 410), meaning "how?" or combined with cum; as, $qu\bar{\imath}cum$, with whom.
- d. Old forms for the dative and ablative plural are queis and quīs.
- e. Quis is sometimes found as a feminine in the comic writers, and even as a neuter. So the compounds quisque, each; quisnam, who in the world; and quisquam, any one, are found as feminines.
 - f. When two only are referred to, uter (see 145 and 146),

not quis, is the interrogative used. So uterque means "each" (of two), quisque, "each" (of several).

NOTE. It will be noticed that the above three pronouns have forms with a-stems, with o-stems, and with i-stems.

185. There are two compound relative pronouns, quī-cumque and quisquis, meaning "whoever." Quīcumque is declined like quī. Quisquis is used only in certain forms, as follows:—

Singular.

	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	quisquis	(quisquis)	quidquid (quicquid)
Acc.	quemquem		quidquid (quicquid)
Abl.	quōquō	quāquā	quōquō

Plural.

Nom. quiqui Dat. quibusquibus

- a. Modī is joined to quisquis, as to the demonstratives, but in an old form of the genitive, cuicuimodī, of whatever kind.
- b. Indefinite interrogatives are formed from quis by various particles; as, ecquis, numquis, any one? Quisnam, who, pray? is emphatic for quis. These words are common only in certain cases, and are often written as two words. The feminine nominative singular and neuter nominative and accusative plural generally end in qua, not quae.
- c. So various quasi-compounds are formed from the indefinite quis; as, sīquis, nēquis, often written separately; quīlibet, quīvīs, quispiam, quisquam, quīdam, with quisque, each, and ūnusquisque, each and all. They are all declined like quis, but quisquam is not used in the feminine nor in the plural, and quispiam has in the plural only the feminine nominative quaepiam. A form ūnumquidquid occurs in Plautus and Lucretius.
- d. The order of the indefinite pronouns from less to greater definiteness is as follows:—

quisquam, any one whatever.

quīlibet,
quīvīs,
quis, any.

aliquis, some one or other, any one.
quispiam, some one.
quīdam, some particular one.

Note. Quo- was the old form of spelling for cu- in these pronouns (cf. 59, c), so that we find in inscriptions and in Plautus and Terence quoius (originally trissyl.), and then quoius (dissyl.), for cūius, quoi for cui, quoivis for cuivis, etc.

For the use of indefinite pronouns, see Syntax, 454 ff.

Possessives.

- 186. (1.) Possessives are formed from the personal pronouns (including the reflexive), and from the interrogative (and relative). Thus: meus, my; tuus, thy, your; suus, his, hers, etc.; noster, our; vester, your; cūius (relative and interrogative), whose.
- (2.) They are declined regularly, meus, mea, meum, etc.; noster, nostra, nostrum, etc.: except that the vocative singular masculine of meus is generally mī (otherwise meus like nominative); the others have no vocative.
 - a. Cūius is used only in a few forms, as follows:—

		Plural.		
	M.	F.	N.	F.
Nom.	cūius	cūia	cūium	cūiae
Acc.	cūium	$car{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{iam}$		cūiās
Abl.		cūiā		

b. The suffixes -met and (chiefly in the ablative) -pte are sometimes annexed to the possessives to give them emphasis. Thus: tuīsmet, meāpte, etc.

NOTE. Old forms of the genitive plural of the possessive pronouns in -um for -orum occur in comedy; as, meūm, vostrūm. Sovos, sova, sovom, are found in inscriptions, for suus, sua, suum. The older spellings of cūius, -a, -um, were quoius, -a, -um (originally trissyl.), quōius, -a, -um (dissyl.) (cf. 185, note).

187. For convenience of reference the following table of correlative pronouns and adverbs is here given: --

INTERROGATIVE.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.	GENERAL RELATIVE.	Indepinite.
uter, which (of two) ?	÷	uter, which (of two).	utercumque, whichever (of two).	
quis, who?	is (blc, etc.), he, this.	quI, who.	quisquis, whoever.	aliquis, some or any one.
quantus, how great?	tantus, so great.	quantus, as great as.	quantuscumque, however great.	aliquantus, of some extent.
quantulus, how little?		quantulus, as little as.	quantulus, as little as. quantuluscumque, however little.	aliquantulus, of some little
			•	extent.
qualis, of what sort?	tālis, such.	qualis, of which sort.	qualiscumque, of whatever sort.	
quot, how many?	tot, so many.	quot, as many as.	quotquot, however many.	aliquot, several.
quotus, of what rank?	(totus), * of such rank.	quotus, of which rank.	quotuscumque, of whatever rank.	
ubi, where?	ibľ, there.	ubl, where.	ubž, where? ibž, there. ubž, where. ubjubž, wherever.	alicubl, anywhere, some-
	•			where.
quō, whither ?	eō (hūc, illūc), thither. quō, whither.	quō, whither.	quōquō, whithersoever.	aliquō, anywhither, some- whither.
quorsum, toward what horsum, to this end.	t horsum, to this end.	quōrsum, to which end.	quōrsum, to which end. quōquōversum, to whatever end.	aliquöversus, to some or any end.
quā, where (what way) ? eā, there.	f eā, there.	quā, where (which way). quāquā, wherever.	quāquā, <i>wherever</i> .	aliquā, somewhere, any- where.
unde, whence?	inde, thence.	unde, whence.	undicumque, from whatever quar- alicunde, from some or	alicunde, from some or
			ter.	any quarter.
quando, when?	tum (nunc †), then, now. cum, when.	. cum, when.	quandocumque, whenever.	aliquando, some or any
6 money	tom so (more)	(form) as (many)	mamata hononor (much)	time, at length.
quant, now; anotiens, how often?	totiens, so often.	quant, as (mass); quotiens, as often as.	quotienscumque. however often.	aliquotiens, several times.
ut, how?	ita (sīo), so, thus.	ut, as.	utut, utcunque, however.	
* Very ran	* Very rare, and not to be confused with tōtus, whole.	ed with tōtus, whole.	† Nunc: tunc:: hic: ille, eto.	:: híc : ille, eto.

PATRIALS.

- 188. The patrials are formed from the stems of the possessives noster and $c\bar{u}ius$, and indicate the country to which one belongs. Thus: $nostr\bar{u}s$, of our country; $c\bar{u}i\bar{u}s$, of what country?
- a. They are declined regularly like adjectives of one ending: nostrās, nostrātis, etc., but are used only in certain forms, as follows:—

	$\mathcal{S}i$	ngular.	Plural.		
N.	nostrās	cūiās (quoiās)	nostrātēs	nostrātia	cūiatēs (m.)
	nostrātis	cūiātis			
		cūiātem $(m.)$			
Ab.			nostrātibus		

Nostrātis and cūiātis also occur as nominatives.

NOTE. A form vestrās, of your country, is given by Priscian and other ancient grammarians.

VERBS.

- 189. Verbs are either TRANSITIVE $(tr\bar{a}nsit\bar{i}va)$ or INTRANSITIVE $(intr\bar{a}nsit\bar{i}va)$.*
- 190. A TRANSITIVE verb marks an action as directly applied to an object; as, videt leonem, he sees the lion.
- 191. An INTRANSITIVE verb denotes a state or marks an action as *not* directly applied to any object; \dagger as, $st\bar{o}$, I stand; dormit, he is sleeping; veniunt, they come.
- 192. To verbs belong VOICE (genus‡), MOOD (modus), TENSE (tempus), PERSON (persona), and NUMBER (numerus).
- * Scientifically, we should not speak of verbs themselves as transitive or intransitive, but of transitive and intransitive uses of a verb.
- † An intransitive verb is sometimes accompanied by an apparent object, which is, however, really an adverbial modifier; as, "I slept (for) three hours."
 - † So called from a false analogy with gender in nouns.



VOICE.

- 193. (1.) VOICE is distinguished as ACTIVE (āctīvum) or PASSIVE (passīvum).
- (2.) The ACTIVE voice represents the subject as acting. Thus: Caesar Gallos vicit, Caesar conquered the Gauls.
- (3.) The Passive voice represents the subject as acted upon. Thus: $Gall\bar{\imath}$ \bar{a} Caesare $vict\bar{\imath}$ sunt, the Gauls were conquered by Caesar.
- a. In some languages there is also a special form to represent the subject as acting upon itself. This is called a MIDDLE voice. The Latin passive seems to have been at first of this kind, and a few instances of the use survived in classical times. Thus: Androgeī galeam clipeīque īnsīgne decōrum induitur, he puts on the helmet of Androgeus and his beautifully ornamented shield (Verg., Ae., ii., 392).
- b. The place of the middle voice is generally supplied, however, by the active with a reflexive pronoun. Thus: $p\bar{o}m\bar{s}$ $s\bar{s}$ $arb\bar{o}s$ induit, the tree clothes itself with fruit (see Verg., G., iv., 143); $qu\bar{o}cumque$ $t\bar{e}$ $anim\bar{o}$ et $c\bar{o}git\bar{a}ti\bar{o}ne$ converteris (future perfect), whithersoever you turn in mind and thought (Cic., $d\bar{e}$ $\bar{O}r.$, i., 2, 6).
- 194. Intransitive verbs have as such only the active voice. In Latin, however, they may be used impersonally in the passive. (See 318, 3, and 387.)
- 195. Some verbs, having the form of the passive, have the meaning of the active. They are called DEPONENTS $(d\bar{e}p\bar{o}nentia)$.* Thus: sequor, I follow; morior, I die.
- a. The deponents are really remnants of the middle voice, as may be seen by the etymological meaning of many of them; as, recordor, I remind myself (hence "remember").
- 196. Four verbs have the active form in the tenses from the present stem, and the passive form in their other
- * From $d\bar{e}p\bar{o}n\bar{o}$, lay aside, because they have laid aside the active form and the passive meaning.

parts, but all with active meaning. They are called SEMI-DEPONENTS ($s\bar{e}mi-d\bar{e}p\bar{o}nentia$).

a. They are: $aude\bar{o}$, dare; $f\bar{\imath}d\bar{o}$, trust (with its compounds); $gaude\bar{o}$, am glad; and $sole\bar{o}$, am wont.

Mood.

197. There are three MOODS: the INDICATIVE (indicātīvus), the SUBJUNCTIVE (subiūnctīvus), and the IMPERATIVE (imperātīvus).

NOTE. The infinitive is also often reckoned among the moods, but it is really a verbal noun, and according to the best usage at present is treated with the other noun parts of the verb. (See 202 and 203.)

- 198. (1.) The INDICATIVE is used to speak of things as they are, to assert, deny, or question a fact. Thus: veniō, I come; audīsne, do you hear?
- (2.) The SUBJUNCTIVE is used to speak of things as they seem in the mind, to represent ideas or notions. Thus the subjunctive expresses a purpose, a wish, a supposition, etc. Examples are:—

Puerum mīsit quī dīceret, he sent a boy to say.

Utinam pater adesset, oh, that my father were here.

Faciat ille sī eum rogēs, he would do it if you should ask him.

a. The difference between the indicative and the subjunctive is perhaps most clearly seen in the expression of a cause. Thus:—

Indicative: Hốc dĩ xit quod $v\bar{v}$ rum erat, he said this because it was true;

Subjunctive: Hōc dīxit quod vērum esset, he said this because (as he thought) it was true.*

- (3.) The IMPERATIVE is used to express a command or exhortation. Thus: haec nūntiāte rēgī vestrō, tell this to your king; amā inimīcōs tuōs, love your enemies.
- * The pupil should be cautioned against supposing that the subjunctive implies that a thing is not a fact. It expresses only as an idea a thing which also may be a fact or may not.



TENSE.

- 199. There are six tenses: the present (praesēns), IMPERFECT (imperfectum), FUTURE (futūrum), PERFECT (perfectum), PLUPERFECT (plūsquamperfectum), and FUTURE PERFECT (futūrum exāctum).
- a. The Latin tenses correspond in general to the English tenses of the same names, but are used more strictly. It should be noticed also that the Latin imperfect is mostly confined to the progressive sense (was doing, having, etc.), while the Latin perfect serves generally for the English imperfect as well as perfect.
- b. When the Latin perfect corresponds to the English perfect it is called the PERFECT DEFINITE OF PRESENT PERFECT; when it corresponds to the English imperfect it is called the HISTORICAL PERFECT.

200. The tenses are divided into -

- (1.) PRIMARY or PRINCIPAL tenses: present, perfect definite, and the two futures.
- (2.) SECONDARY or HISTORICAL tenses: imperfect, historical perfect, and pluperfect.
- a. Only the indicative has all six tenses; the subjunctive has no future; the imperative has only the present and the future, the latter expressing the command more gently.

NUMBER AND PERSON.

- 201. There are two numbers, singular and plural, as in nouns, and three persons, the first denoting the speaker, the second denoting the person spoken to, and the third denoting the person or thing spoken of.
- α . The imperative has in the present only the second person, in the future the second and third persons.

Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb.

202. (1.) The three moods with their various tenses,

numbers, and persons, form what is called the FINITE VERB ($verbum f \bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}tum$).

- (2.) The verb has also three noun forms and two adjective forms, as follows:
 - a. Noun forms: Infinitive (infinitivus).

 GERUND (gerundium).

 SUPINE (supinum).
 - b. Adjective forms: Participle (participium).

 Gerundive (gerundīvum).

NOTE. These five parts are sometimes classed together as the verbum infinitum.

203. (1.) The INFINITIVE is chiefly used as a neuter noun in the nominative or accusative singular. Thus:—

 $H\bar{u}m\bar{a}num$ est errare, to err is human.

In animo habeo Romam ire, I intend to go to Rome.

(2.) The infinitive is also used in certain special constructions (see 530 ff.), and has three tenses, present, perfect, and future. Thus:—

Pres. dicere, to say.

Perf. dīxisse, to have said.

Fut. dictūrus esse, to be on the point of saying.

204. The GERUND is a noun of the second declension (stem ending in -ndo-), used only in the oblique cases of the singular. The infinitive supplies its nominative. Thus:—

Vēnandī $caus\bar{a}$, for the sake of hunting; fessus vēnandō, weary with hunting.

But: salūbre est vēnāri, hunting is healthful.

205. The SUPINE is a noun of the fourth declension (stem ending in -tu-) used only in the accusative and ablative singular. Thus:—

Vēniō rogātum, I come to ask (for asking).

Difficile intellectu, hard to understand (in the understanding of it).

For the syntax of the supine see 553 ff.

206. There are three Participles; the Present Active, the FUTURE ACTIVE, and the PERFECT PASSIVE. Thus:—

Pres. Act. dīcēns, saying.

Fut. Act. dictūrus, on the point of saying.

Perf. Pass. dictus, said (having been said).

a. The perfect participle of deponent verbs generally has an active meaning; as, secūtus, having followed. So also the perfect participle of the following four verbs:—

 $c\bar{e}n\bar{o}$, dine; $c\bar{e}n\bar{a}tus$, having dined. $i\bar{u}r\bar{o}$, swear; $i\bar{u}r\bar{a}tus$, having sworn. $p\bar{o}t\bar{o}$, drink; $p\bar{o}tus$, having drunk. $prande\bar{o}$, breakfast; $pr\bar{a}nsus$, having breakfasted.

- 207. (1.) The GERUNDIVE is an adjective of the first and second declension (having the same stem as the gerund). Thus: amandus, docendus.
- (2.) Used to agree with a subject in the nominative or accusative, it denotes necessity or obligation. Thus:—

Docendus est puer, the boy must be taught.

Vir venerandus, a man to be revered.

Dīxit id faciendum esse, he said it must be done.

(3.) In other situations the idea of obligation is more hidden. Thus:—

Ad $p\bar{a}cem$ petendam $v\bar{e}nit$, he came to ask for peace (i. e., with regard to the peace to be asked for).

Urbis condendae consilium, the design of founding a city.

a. In late Latin the gerundive became a future passive participle. Faciendus would then mean merely "on the point of being done."

CONJUGATION.

Tense-Stems.

208. Three special stems — the PRESENT stem, the PERFECT stem, and the PERFECT PARTICIPLE stem — are distinguished in the verb.

- 209. From the PRESENT stem are formed in both voices the present, imperfect, and future in all the moods; also the present infinitive, the present participle, and the gerund and gerundive.
- 210. From the PERFECT stem are formed, in the active voice only, the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses, and the perfect infinitive.
- 211. From the PERFECT PARTICIPLE stem is formed the perfect participle passive, which with the parts of esse, to be, forms in the passive voice those tenses which in the active are formed from the perfect stem.
- a. The supine has a (noun) stem of its own, and the future participle has a derivative (adjective) stem. The future infinitive active is formed by the future participle with esse. The future infinitive passive is formed by the supine with $\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}$ (the present infinitive passive of $\bar{\imath}re$, to go).*
- b. The supine and the perfect and future participles, though not connected in derivation, have a *mechanical* similarity of basis which helps to fix them in the mind.

Thus: —

Perf. Part.	Supine.	Fut. Part.
rēct <i>us</i>	r ēct <i>um</i>	rēct <i>ūrus</i>
cās <i>us</i>	cās <i>um</i>	cās <i>ūrus</i>
flexus	$\mathbf{flex}um$	flex <i>ūrus</i>
monit <i>us</i>	monitum	monit $ar{u}rus$
amāt <i>us</i>	$\mathbf{am}\mathbf{ar{a}}\mathbf{t}um$	amāt <i>ūrus</i>

* The parts here mentioned, together with the perfect participle and the tenses formed by it, have been commonly grouped together and derived from a so-called supine stem. It has seemed best to give up this wholly unscientific point of view, but not to depart further from the traditional explanation of the verb forms. The pupil should be warned, however, that this explanation is true only of the apparent structure of the verb in its developed state as met in literature. Many of the tenses which seem to belong to the same stem have in reality very varied origins. For instance, the imperfect subjunctive probably does not belong to the present stem at all, but grew from the same form as the perfects in -51.

212. The following table shows the tenses formed from each of the stems:—

PRESENT STEM.

		ACTIVI	G.		PASSIVI	5.
Indicative	Pres.,	Imp.,	Future.	Pres.,	Imp.,	Future.
Subjunctive	"	"		"	66	
Imperative	66		"	66		"
Infinitive	"			"		
Participle	"					

Gerund. Gerundive.

	PERFECT STEM.	PERF. PART. STEM	ː .
	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.	
Indicative	Perf., Plup., Fut. Perf	f. Perf., Plup., Fut. Pe	erf.
Subjunctive	" "	" "	
Infinitive	"	"	
Participle		66	
Fur	URE PART. with esse = F	uture Infin. Active.	
Sup	ine " $ir\bar{i} =$	" " Passive.	

Personal Endings.

- 213. The FINITE forms of the verb have the following PERSONAL ENDINGS: *—
 - (1.) Indicative (except perfect) and Subjunctive.

ACIIVIS.		L WOOLA IN.
Sing. 1st Pers.	-m or —	-r
$2d\ Pers.$	-s	-ris (shortened -re)
3d Pers.	-t	-tur
Plur. 1st Pers.	-mus	-mur
2d Pers.	-tis	-minī
3d Pers.	-nt	-ntur

^{*} These personal endings are regarded usually as remnants of the personal pronoun forms. But see Brugmann in Handbuch der Altertumswiss., ii., p. 72, § 106.

(2.) Perfect indicative active.*

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Pers.		-mus
2d Pers.	-stī	-stis
3d Pers.	-t	-ērunt (shortened -ēre)

(3.) IMPERATIVE.

	PRESENT.		FUTURE.	
	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
Sing. 2d Pers.		-re	-tō	-tor
3d Pers.			-tō	-tor
Plur. 2d Pers.	-te	-minī	-tōte	
3d Pers.			-ntō	-ntor

214. The ENDINGS of the NOUN and ADJECTIVE forms of the verb are as follows:—

Infinit	TIVES.	Partic	IPLES.
ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
Presre	-rī (-ī in 3d conj.) †	-ns (-ntis)	
Perfisse	-tus (-a, -um) esse		-tus, -a, -um
Futtūrus (-a, -um) esse	-tum īrī	-tūrus, -a, -um	

GERUNDIVE and GERUND.

-ndus, -a, -um, etc.

Supine. -tum, -tū

215. sum, I am, is conjugated as follows:—

Pres. Stem es-

Perf. Stem fu-

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular. Plural.

sum, I am. sumus, we are.
es, thou art. estis, you are.
est, he is. sunt, they are.



^{*} The apparently different endings of the perfect indicative are due to the mixed origin of that tense, and can be best explained elsewhere.

[†] Sometimes -rier (-ier).

INFLECTION.

IMPERFECT.

eram, I was. erās, thou wast. erat, he was. erāmus, we were. erātis, you were. erant, they were.

FUTURE.

erō, I shall be. eris, thou wilt be. erit, he will be. erimus, we shall be. eritis, you will be. erunt, they will be.

PERFECT.

fuī, I have been. fuistī, thou hast been. fuit, he has been. fuimus, we have been. fuistis, you have been. fuērunt (-re), they have been.

PLUPERFECT.

fueram, I had been. fuerās, thou hadst been. fuerat, he had been. fuerāmus, we had been. fuerātis, you had been. fuerant, they had been.

FUTURE PERFECT.

fuero, I shall have been. fueris, thou wilt have been. fuerit, he will have been. fuerimus, we shall have been. fueritis, you will have been. fuerint, they will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

IMPERFECT.

sim	sīmus
នរិន	sītis
sit	sint

essēm essēmus essēs essētis esset essent

PERFECT.

PLUPERFECT.

fuerim	fuerimus	fuiss
fueris	fueritis	fuiss
fuerit	fuerint	fuiss

issem fuissēmus issēs fuissētis isset fuissent

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

FUTURE.

es, be thou. este, be ye.

estō estōte

estō suntō

Pres. esse, to be.

Perf. fuisse, to have been.

Fut. futures esse or fore, to be on the point of being.

PARTICIPLE.

PARTICIPLE.

PARTICIPLE.

futures, -a, -um, on the point of being.

- a. It will be seen that the parts of sum are from two different roots, $\vee es$ for the tenses from the present stem, the e disappearing in various forms, and s between two vowels becoming r (see 67); and $\vee fu$ for the other forms. Fueram, fuissem, etc., are compounded of both roots.
- b. A present participle sēns is seen in the compounds absēns and praesēns.
 - c. Old forms are -

Present Subj. siem, sies, siet, sient.

fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant.

Imperf. Subj. forem, fores, foret, forent.

Perfect Subj. fuverint.

Pluperf. Subj. fuvisset.

Perf. Indic. fuvimus.

Fut. Indic. ēscit, ēscunt.*

- d. Prōsum, am profitable, retains the original d of the preposition where the simple verb begins with a vowel. Thus: prōsum, prōdes, prōdest, etc.
- 216. possum, compounded of potis, able, and sum, is conjugated as follows:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

Singular.

Plural.

possum, I can. potes, thou canst.

possumus, we can potestis, you can.

potest, he can.

possunt, they can.

^{*} Really inceptive presents.

IMPERFECT.

poteram, I could. poteras, thou couldst. poterat, he could. poterāmus, we could. poterātis, you could. poterant, they could.

FUTURE.

potero, I shall be able. poteris, thou wilt be able. poterit, he will be able. poterimus, we shall be able. poteritis, you will be able. poterunt, they will be able.

PERFECT.

potuī, I have been able potuimus, we have been able (could). (could).

potuisti, thou hast been able potuistis, you have been able (couldst). (could).

potuit, he has been able potuërunt (-re), they have (could). been able (could).

PLUPERFECT.

potueram, I had been able. potuerāmus, we had been able.

potuerās, thou hadst been potuerātis, you had been able.

potuerat, he had been able. potuerant, they had been able.

FUTURE PERFECT.

potuerō, I shall have been potuerimus, we shall have been able.

potueris, thou wilt have been potueritis, you will have been able.

potuerit, he will have been potuerint, they will have been able. able.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. IMPERFECT.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
possim	possīmus	possem	possēmus
possīs	possītis	possēs	possētis
possit	possint	posset	possent

PERFECT.

PLUPERFECT.

potuerim	potuerimus	potuissem	potuissēmus
potueris	potueritis	potuissēs	potuissētis
potuerit	potuerint	potuisset	potuissent

(No Imperative.)

Infinitives.

Pres. posse

PARTICIPLE
(used only as adjective).
Pres. potēns

Perf. potuisse

a. Rare forms are —

Pres. Indic. potessunt.

Pres. Subj. potessim, potessit; possiem, possies, possiet.

Imper. Subj. potessem.

Pres. Infin. potesse.

b. With a passive infinitive are sometimes found—potestur, poterātur, possētur.

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

217. Regular Verbs are divided into four conjugations, distinguished by the vowel before the ending (-re) of the present infinitive active. Thus:—

Conjugation.	Infinitive.	Vowel.*
I.	amāre	ā.
II.	monēre	ē.
III.	regere †	Θ.
IV.	audīre	ĩ.

- a. The four conjugations are produced by the union of precisely the same endings with different kinds of verb-stems, and are therefore strictly only one conjugation. Verbs with stems in $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ -belong to the first conjugation, those with stems in $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ to the second, those with consonant or \mathbf{u} stems to the third, and those with stems in $\bar{\mathbf{i}}$ to the fourth.
 - * This vowel is sometimes called the CHARACTERISTIC.
 - † See first footnote, page 100.

b. Between the verb-stem and the ending in the tenses from the present stem there is a vowel called the THEMATIC vowel. This vowel contracts with the stem vowel in the first, second, and fourth conjugations, producing \$\bar{a}\$, \$\bar{e}\$, \$\bar{i}\$, respectively. In the third conjugation it appears as u (older o) before a nasal (m and n), and as \$\theta\$ (often weakened to i) before other consonants.*

Formation of the Three Tense-Stems.

- 218. (1.) In the first and fourth conjugations, and in the few corresponding verbs of the second, the stems show the following formations:—
 - a. Present stem is the verb-stem contracted with the thematic vowel.
 - b. Perfect stem is present stem $+ \mathbf{v}$.
 - c. Perfect participle stem is present stem + to.

Thus: —

amāre	√ am	amā-	amāv-	amāto-
flēre	\checkmark fle(\mathbf{v})	flē-	flēv-	flēto-
audīre	√ aud	audī-	audīv-	audīto-

(2.) But in the second conjugation most verbs form the perfect stem directly from the root, v then appearing as u after the root-consonant; their perfect participle stem is also formed directly from the root and frequently has an intervening i before the ending. Thus:—

docēre	√ doc	docē-	docu-	docto-
$mon\bar{e}re$	\checkmark mon	monē-	monu-	monito-†

- 219. (1.) In the third conjugation the present and
- * The third conjugation is the oldest, and shows the noun origin of the infinitive most plainly, namely, that it is really the dative or locative of a noun like genus or pignus, dative generi and pigneri. Old forms of the dative in 5 occur in inscriptions.
- † The origin of this i is uncertain. It may be the thematic vowel, or in some cases a parasitic vowel (see 64), or, which is perhaps most likely, it may have been weakened from ē; as, monētum, monētum, monitum. Words like obsolētus and monēta, with the series of nouns in -ētum, vīnētum, quercētum, etc., beside forms like meretō in inscriptions, support this last view.

perfect stems present various peculiarities which can best be treated in detail later. The commonest forms of perfect stem are those in s-, and those which have the same form as the present stem, or only lengthen the stem-vowel.

(2.) The perfect participle stem is formed from the root except in the case of the derivative u-verbs, where it is formed from the stem with the vowel lengthened. The t often appears euphonically as s. Thus:—

regere	√ reg	rege-	rēx-	rēcto-
fundere	√ fud	funde-	fūd-	fūso-
statuere	√ sta	statue-	statu-	statūto-

Principal Parts.

220. The PRINCIPAL PARTS of a Latin verb are the Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Perfect Participle. In the case of passive and deponent verbs the perfect participle is not counted, being included in the perfect indicative.

NOTE. The principal parts are so called because they furnish the key to the conjugation of the whole verb. The present indicative names the verb. The present infinitive is also used to name the verb, as in English, but its more important function is to show to which conjugation the verb belongs. The three stems are shown by the infinitive, the perfect, and the perfect participle.

221. The principal parts in the four conjugations are as follows:—

Conjugation.	Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Perf. Part.
I.	$\mathbf{am}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	amāre	amāvī	amātus
	(fleō	flēre	flēvī	flētus
II.	{ doceō	docēre	docuī	doctus
	(moneō	monēre	monui	monitus
	(regō	regere	rēxī	rēctus *
III.	{ fundō	fundere	fūdī	fūsus *
	(statuō	statuere	statuī	statūtus *
IV.	audiō	audīre	audīvī	audītus

^{*} These examples show, of course, only a few of the stem forms in this conjugation.

~ ~		***
2 27 .	ACTIVE	VOICE

I.	Conjugation.	II. Conjug	ation.
	amāre,	flēre,	monēre,
	to love	to weep	to put in mind
	Princ	IPAL PARTS.	
Pres. Ind.	amō	fleō	m oneō
Pres. Infin.	amāre	flēre	monēre
Perf. Ind.	amāvī	flē v ī	monui
Perf. Part.	amātus	flētus	monitus
	Indica	ATIVE MOOD.	
	PRES	ENT TENSE.	
Singular	amō	fleō	moneō
Ü	amās	flēs	$mon\bar{e}s$
	amat	flet	monet
Plural	amāmus	flēmus	monēmus
	amātis	flētis	monētis
	amant	flent	monent
	IM	PERFECT.	
Singular	amābam	flēbam	monēbam
	amābās	flēbās	monēbās
	amābat	flēbat	monēbat
Plural	amābāmus	flēbāmus	monēbāmus
	amābātis	flēbātis	monēbātis
	amābant	flēbant	monēban t
	1	UTURE.	
Singular	amābō	flēbō	$mon\bar{e}b\bar{o}$
J	amābis	flēbis	m onēbis
	amābit	flēbit	${f monar{e}bit}$
Plural	amābimus	flēbimus	monēbimus
	amābitis	flēbitis	monēbitis
	amābunt	flēbunt	$mon\bar{e}bunt$

ACTIVE VOICE.

III. Co	njugation.	IV. Conjug	gation.		
regere,	capere,	venīre,	audīre,		
to rule	to take	to come	to hear		
	PRINCIPA	L PARTS.	•		
regō	capiō	v eniō	audiō		
regere	capere	venīre	audīre		
rē x ī	cēpī	v ēn ī	audīvī		
rēctus	captus	ventum *	audītus		
	Indicati	VE MOOD.			
	PRESEN	T TENSE.			
regō	capiō	v eniō	audiō		
regis	capis	venīs	audīs		
regit	capit	venit	audit		
regimus	capimus	venīmu s	audīmus		
regitis	capitis	venīti s	audītis		
regunt	capiunt	v eniu n t	a udiun t		
	IMPE	RFECT.			
regēbam	capiēbam	veniēbam	audiēba m		
regēb ās	capiēbās	veniēb ās	audiēb ās		
regēbat	capiēbat	${f v}$ eni $ar{f e}$ ba ${f t}$	audiēbat		
regēb āmus	cap iēb āmus	veniēbāmus	audiēbāmus		
regēbātis	capiēbātis	ven iēbātis	audiēbātis		
regēbant	capiēbant	v eniēban t	au diēban t		
FUTURE.					
regam	capiam	veniam	audiam		
regës	capiēs	v eniēs	audiēs		
reget	capiet	v eniet	audiet		
regēmus	c apiēm us	v eniēmus	audiēm us		
regēti s	capiētis	v eniētis	audiētis		
regent	capient	\mathbf{v} enient	audient		

^{*} Used only impersonally, since venire is an intransitive verb. (Cf. 194.)

P	K)	R	Ю	T	١.

Singular	amāvī	flē vī	monui
	amāvistī	flēvistī	monuisti
	amāvit	flēvit	monuit
Plural	amāvimus	flēvimus	monuimus
	amāvistis	flēvistis	monuistis
	amāvērunt	flēvērunt	monuērunt
	(-ēre)*	(-ēre)	(-ēre)

PLUPERFECT.

Singular	amāveram	flēveram	monueram
	amāverās	flēverās	monuerās
	amāverat	flēverat	monuerat
Plural	amāverāmus	fleverāmus	monuerāmus
	amāverātis	flēverātis	monuerātis
	amāverant	flēverant	monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

Singular	amāverō	flēverō	monuero
	amāveris	flēveris	monueris
	amāverit	flēverit	monuerit
Plural	amāverimus	flēverimus	monuerimus
	amāveritis	flēveritis	monueritis
	amāverint	flēverint	monuerint

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Singular	amem	fleam	moneam
	amēs	fleās	moneās
	amet	fleat	moneat
Plural	amēmus	fleāmus	moneāmus
	amētis	fleātis	moneātis
	ament	fleant	moneant

^{*} The forms in -ere are rare in prose, except in the historians.

PERFECT.

rēxī	cēpī	vēnī	audīvī
rēxistī	cēpistī	vēnistī	audīvistī
rēxit	cēpit	vēnit	audīvit
rēximus	cēpimus	vēnimus	audīvimus
rēxistis	cēpistis	vēnistis	audīvistis
rēxērunt	cēpērunt	vēnērunt	audīvērunt
(-ēre)*	(-ēre)	(-ēre)	(-ēre)

PLUPERFECT.

rēxeram	cēperam	vēneram	audīveram
rēxerās	cēperās	vēnerās	audīverās
rēxerat	cēperat	vēnerat	audīverat
rēxerāmus	cēperāmus	vēnerāmus	audīverāmus
rēxerātis	cēperātis	vēnerātis	audīverātis
rēxerant	cēperant	vēnerant	audīverant

FUTURE PERFECT.

rēxerō	cēperō	vēnerō	audīverō
rēxeris	cēperis	vēneris	audīveris
rēxerit	cēperit	vēnerit	audīverit
rēxerimus	cēperimus	vēnerimus	audīverimus
rēxeritis	cēperitis	vēneritis	audīveritis
rēxerint	cēperint	vēnerint	audīverint

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

regam	capiam	veniam	audiam
regās	capiās	veniās	audiās
regat	capiat	veniat	audiat
regāmus	capiāmus	veniāmus	audiāmus
regātis	capiātis	veniātis	audiātis
regant	capiant	veniant	audiant

^{*} The forms in -exe are rare in prose, except in the historians.

ERF	

	I.M.	I KIEPECI.	
Singular	amārem	flērem	monērem
	amārēs	flērēs	monērēs
	amāret	flēret	monēret
Plural	amārēmus	flērēmus	monērēmus
	amārētis	flērētis	monērētis
	amārent	flērent	monērent
	P.	ERFECT.	
Singular	amāverim	flēverim	monuerim
	amāveris	flēveris	monueris
	amāverit	flēverit	monuerit
Plural	amāverimus	flēverimus	monuerimus
	amāveritis	flēveritis	monueritis
	amāverint	flēverint	monuerint
	PLU	PERFECT.	
Singular	amāvissem	flēvissem	monuissem
	amāvissēs	flēvissēs	monuissēs
	amāvisset	flēvisset	monuisset
Plural	amāvissēmus	flēvissēmus	monuissēmus
	amāvissētis	flēvissētis	monuissētis
	amāvissent	flēvissent	monuissent

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

flē

monē

Sing. 2d Per. amā

Plur. 2d Per.	amāte	flēte	monēte
		FUTURE.	
Sing. 2d Per.	$\mathbf{am\bar{a}t\bar{o}}$	flētō	monētō
3d Per.	$\mathbf{am\bar{a}t\bar{o}}$	flētō	$mon\bar{e}t\bar{o}$
Plur. 2d Per.	amātōte	flētōte	monētōte
3d Par	amantō	flentō	monentō

IMPERFECT.

regerem	caperem	venīrem	audīrem
regerēs	caperēs	venīrēs	audīrēs
regeret	caperet	venīret	audīret
regerēmus	caperēmus	venīrēmus	audīrēmus
regerētis	caperētis	venīrētis	audīrētis
regerent	caperent	venīrent	audīrent
	DEE	TOTALOTT	

PERFECT.

rēxerim	cēperim	vēnerim	audīverim
rēxeris	cēperis	vēneris	audīveris
rēxerit	cēperit	vēnerit	audīverit
rēxerimus	cēperimus	vēnerimus	audīverimus
rēxeritis	cēperitis	vēneritis	audīveritis
rēxerint	cēperint	vēnerint	audīverint

PLUPERFECT.

rēxissem	cēpissem	vēnissem	audīvissem
rēxissēs	cēpissēs	vēnissēs	audīvissēs
rēxisset	cēpisset	vēnisset	audīvisset
rēxissēmus	cēpissēmus	vēnissētis	audīvissēmus
rēxissētis	cēpissētis		audīvissētis
rēxissent	cēpissent	vēnissent	audīvissent

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

rege	cape	veni	audī
regite	capite	venīte	audīte
	F	JTURE.	
regitō regitō	capitō capitō	venītō venītō	audītō audītō
regitōte	capitote	venītōte	audītōte
reguntō	capiunto	veniuntō	audiuntō

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Pres.	amāre	flēre	monēre
Perf.	amāvisse	flēvisse	monuisse
Future	amātūrus	flētūrus	monitūrus
	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	amāns	flēns	monēns
Future	amātūrus	flētūrus	monitūrus
	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
		~	

GERUND.

Gen.	amandī	flendī	monendi
D. & A.	\mathbf{aman} dō	${f flendo}$	\mathbf{m} one \mathbf{n} d $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$
Acc.	amandum	flendum	monendum

SUPINE.

Acc.	amātum	[flētum] *	monitum
Abl.	amātū	flētū	$monit\bar{u}$

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PASSIVE VOICE.

I. Conjugation.

II. Conjugation.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

$\mathbf{Pres.\ Ind.\ amor}$	doceor †	moneor
Pres. Inf. amārī	docērī	monērī
Perf. Ind. amātus sum	doctus sum	monitus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Singular	amor	doceor	moneor
	amāris (-re)‡	docēris (-re)	monēris (-re)
	amātur	docētur	monētur
Plural	amāmur	docēmur	monēmur
	amāminī	docēminī	monēminī
	amantur	docentur	monentur

^{*} Not found in actual use in the Latin that has come down to us.

[†] Meaning, I am taught. The active voice is perfectly regular, and is omitted only because $fle\bar{o}$ beside $mone\bar{o}$ furnishes a more instructive paradigm.

[!] The forms in -re are rare in the present tense.

FINITIVES.

regere	capere	venīre	audīre
rēxisse	cēpisse	venisse	audīvisse
rēctūrus	captūrus	ventūrus	audītūrus
(-a-, um) esse	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse	$\textbf{(-a,-um)} \ esse$

PARTICIPLES.

regēns	capiēns	veniēns	audiēns
rēctūrus	captūrus	ventūrus	audītūrus
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a -um)	(-a, -um)

GERUND.

regendī	capiendī	veniendī	a udiendī
regendō	capiendō	veniendō	audiendō
regendum	capiendum	veniendum	audiendum

SUPINE.

rēctum	captum	ventum	audītum
rēctū	captū	ventū	audītū

PASSIVE VOICE.

17. Conj. Doponom	III. Conj.	IV. Conj.	Deponent.
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PRINCIPAL PARTS.

regor	capior	audior	mīror *
regī	capī	audīrī	mīrārī
rēctus sum	captus sum	audītus sum	mīrātus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

regor	capior	audior	mīror
regeris (-re) †	caperis (-re)	audīris (-re)	mīrāris (-re)
regitur	capitur	audītur	mīrātur
regimur	capimur	audīmur	mīrāmur
regiminī	capiminī	audīmin ī	mīrāminī
reguntur	capiuntur	audiuntur	mīrantur

^{*} Meaning, I wonder at or admire.

[†] The forms in -re are rare in the present tense.

	17	IPERFECT.	
Singular	amābar	docēbar	monēbar
_	amābāris	docēbāris	monēbāris .
	(-re)	(-re)	(-re)
	amābātur	docēbātur	monēbātur
Plural	amābāmur	docēbāmur	monēbāmur
	amābāminī	docēbāminī	monēbāminī
	amābantur	docēbantur	monēbantur
		FUTURE.	
Singular	amābor	docēbor	monēbor
J	amāberis (-re)	docēberis (-re)	monēberis (-re)
	amābitur	docēbitur	monēbitur
Plural	amābimur	docēbimur	monēbimu r
	amābiminī	docēbiminī	monēbiminī
	amābuntur	docēbuntur	monēbuntur
	,	PERFECT.	
Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
		, , ,	(, ,
Plural	amātī	docti	monitī
	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)
	Þī.	UPERFECT.	
Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
B	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
	(,,	(,)	(,)
Plural	amāti	doctī	monitī
	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)
	********	RE PERFECT.	
Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
~	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
	(,,	(,)	(,)
Plural	amātī	doctī	monit ī
	(-ae, -a) ~	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)

IMPERFECT.

	\mathbf{n}	APERFECT.		
regēbar	capiēbar	audiēbai	r mīr	ābar
regēbāris	capiēbāris	audiēbāi	ris m īri	ābāris
(-re)	(-re)	(-re)	(-:	re)
regēbātur	capiēbātur	audiēbā	tur mīr	ābātur
regēbāmur	capiēbāmur	audiēbā	mur mīr	ābāmur
regēbāminī	capiēbāmini	audiēbā	minī mīr	ābāminī
regēbantur	capiēbantur	audiēba	ntur mīr	ābantur
		FUTURE.		
regar	capiar	audiar	mir	ābor
_	capiēris (-re			āberis (-re)
regētur	capiētur			ābitur
	capiēmur			ābimur
regēminī	capiēminī	audiēmi	nī mī	abiminī
regentur	capientur	audient	ur mīr	ābuntur
		PERFECT.		
rēctus	captus ai	ıdītus	mīrātus	(sum
(-aum)	captus at (-a, -um)	(-a., -um)	(-a, -um)	∤ es
. ()	.(,	(- ,	,	est
rēctī	captī a	udītī	mīrātī	sumus
(-ae, -a)	capti a (-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	sumus estis sunt
, , ,	• •	• . ,		(sunt
	PL	UPERFECT.		(eram
rēctus	captus a	udītus	mīrātus	erās
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	erat
	captus as (-a, -um) capti a (-ae, -a)	3717		(erāmus
recu	capu a	uaiti	mirau	⊰ erātis
(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(- ue , -u)	(erant
FUTURE PERFECT.				
rēctus	captus a	udītus	mīrātus	(ero
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	eris
, , ,	captus a (-a, -um)	, , ,	` ' '	(erit
rēctī	captī a	udītī	mīrātī	erimus
(-ae, -a)	capti a (-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	eritis
•	•	-		· erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Singular Plural	amer amēris (-re) amētur amēmur	docear doceāris (-re) doceātur doceāmur	monear moneātur moneātur
Turai	amēminī	doceamini	moneamur
	amentur	doceantur	moneantur
	I	MPERFECT.	
Singular	amārer	docērer	monērer
	amārēris	docērēris	monērēris
	(-re)	(-re)	(-re)
	amārētur	docērētur	monērētur
Plural	amārēmur	docērēmur	monērēmur
	amārēminī	docērēminī	monērēminī
	amārentur	docērentur	monērentur
		PERFECT.	
Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
Plural	amātī	doctī	monitī
	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)
	PL	UPERFECT.	
Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, -um)	(-a,-um)	(-a, -um)
Plural	amati	doctī	monitī
	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)

SUBJUNCTIVE Mood.

regar	capiar	audiar	mīrer
regāris (-re)	capiāris (-re)	audiāris (-re)	mīrēris (-re)
regātur	capiātur	audiātur	mīrētur
regāmur	capiāmur	audiāmur	mīrēmur
regāminī	capiāminī		mīrēminī
•	capiantur		mīrentur
regament	Capianuu	audiantur	mnentm
	IM	PERFECT.	
regerer	_	audīrer	mīrārer
regerēris	caperēris	audīrēris	mīrārēris
(-re)	(-re)	(-re)	(-re)
regerētur		audīrētur	mīrārētur
_	_	audīrēmu r	mīrārēmur
regerēminī	caperēminī	audīrēmin ī	mīrārēminī
regerentur	caperentur	audirentur	mīrārentur
	101	ERFECT.	
			(sim
rēctus	captus au	ıdītus mīrātu	s) sig
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um) (ıdītus mīrātu (-a, -um) (-a, -ı	$egin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{s} & \left\{egin{array}{c} \mathbf{sim} & \ \mathbf{sis} & \ \mathbf{sit} & \ \end{array} ight. \end{array}$
rāctī	centi er	ıditi mirati	(sīmus
(00.0)		ıdītī mīrātī (-ae, -a) (-ae, -	sītis
(-ao, -a)	(-00, -0)	(-ae, -a) (-ae, ·	(sint
PLUPERFECT.			
rēctus	centus er	ıditus mirātu	g (essem
(-e11m)	(-9 -11m) (-9 -11m) (-9 -11	m) { essēs
(-0, -011)	(-0, -0111)	idītus mīrātu -a, -um) (-a, -u	(esset
rēctī	cantī ai	ıdītī mīrātī (-ae, -a) (-ae, -	(essēmus
(-96 -9)	(-9A -9)		essētis
(-40, -4)	(-40, -4)	(-ac, -a) (-ac, -	(essent

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

Sing. 2 P. amāre docēre monēre

Plur. 2 P. amāminī docēminī monēminī

FUTURE.

Sing. 2 P. amātor docētor monētor

3 P. amātor docētor monētor

Plur. 2 P. —— —— —— —— —— 3 P. amantor docentor monentor

INFINITIVES.

Present amārī docērī monērī Perfect amātus doctus monitus

'erfect amātus doctus monitus (-a, -um) esse (-a, -um) esse (-a, -um) esse

Future amatum īrī doctum īrī monitum īrī

Participles.

Present — — — — — — — — — — — Perfect amātus doctus monitus

(-a, um) (-a, -um) (-a, -um)

Future — — —

GERUNDIVE.

amandus docendus monendus (-a, -um) (-a, -um) (-a, -um)

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

regere	capere	audīre	mīrāre
regiminī	capiminī	audīminī	mīrāminī
	FUT	URE.	
regitor	capitor	a udīto r	mīrātor
regitor	capitor	auditor	mīrātor
reguntor	capiuntor	audiuntor	mīrantor
	Infin	ITIVES.	
regī	capī	audīrī	mīrārī
rēctus	captus	audītus	mīrātus
(-a, -um) ess	se (-a, -um) esse	e (-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse
			(mīrātum īrī *
rēctum īrī	captum īrī	audītum īrī -	mīrātum īrī * mīrātūrus (-a,-um) esse
•		1	((-a, -um) esse
	Parti	CIPLES.	
			mīrāns
rēctus	captus	audītus	mīrātus
$(-\mathbf{a}, -\mathbf{um})$	$(-\mathbf{a}, -\mathbf{um})$	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
			mīrātūrus
	<u> </u>		(-a, -um)
	GERU	NDIVE.	
regendus	capiendus	audiendus	mīrandus *
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
			GERUND.
			mīrandī, etc.
			SUPINE.
			mīrātum, etc.

^{*} The gerundive and the infinitive in iri have passive meanings even in deponent verbs. Thus: hic vir mirandus est, this man must be admired; dixit hoc miratum iri, he said this would be wondered at. So also sometimes the perfect participle.



- 224. The following forms can always be recognized by the presence of certain letters: * -
 - 1. Imperf. indic., ba.
 - 2. Fut. indic. in 1st and 2d. conj., b not followed by a.
 - 3. Pres. subj., † except in 1st conj., a before personal ending.
 - 4. Imperf. subj. is like pres. infin. + personal ending.
 - 5. Pluperf. indic., ra.
 - 6. Pluperf. subj., isse + personal ending. In the active.
 - 7. Perf. infin., isse.
- a. It will also be seen that the present imperative passive second person singular has the same form as the present infinitive active. Furthermore, that the subjunctive present of the first conjugation resembles the future indicative of the third and fourth.
- b. The letters ri show that the form in which they occur is either future perfect indicative or perfect subjunctive active.

The following points may be noted in addition to the rules of quantity given in 37-53.

- 225. In the penultimate syllables of verb forms the following vowels before a single consonant are long:
 - a always (but see dare).
- e, except before r, and even then in the perfect indicative active and in the present subjunctive of the first conjugation and the future indicative of the third and fourth.
 - i in the fourth conjugation and analogous forms.

u, except in sumus and volumus (with their compounds), and the old forms quaesumus, aestumo, etc. (for later quaerimus, aestimō, etc.).

- * To trace the origin and development of these elements in verb-forms would require entering more fully into comparative philology than is possible or desirable in a school grammar. They may be found discussed in Max Engelhardt's Die lateinische Konjugation nach den Ergebnissen der Sprachvergleichung.
- † The first person singular in the third and fourth conjugations cannot, however, be thus distinguished from the first person of the future indicative, as that also has the a.

a. The characteristics of the first, second, and fourth conjugations $(\bar{\mathbf{a}}, \bar{\mathbf{e}}, \bar{\mathbf{i}})$ are always long except when shortened in final syllables by the rules given in 46-50; that of the third conjugation (Θ) is always short.

Remarks on the Verb Forms.

226. Many verbs belonging to a given one of the four conjugations (as shown by their present infinitive) form their perfect and perfect participle stems after the analogy of some other conjugation. Thus:—

secō	secāre	secui	sectus
petō	petere	petī v ī	petītus
$mane\bar{o}$	manēre	mānsī	mānsum (neut.)
v eniō	venīre	v ēn ī	ventum (neut.)

NOTE. Such verbs are really mixtures of two verbs. Some of the forms of the root verbs (third conjugation) had disappeared, and their places were taken by derivative formations of the first, second, or fourth conjugation. The same mixture of forms accounts for the perfects in -uI and participles in -itus, in the second conjugation.

For lists of these irregular formations see 233 ff.

- 227. In the tenses formed from the present stem the following points should be noted:—
- a. Orior, rise, and (chiefly in verse) potior, gain possession of, though belonging to the fourth conjugation, have several forms of the third. Thus:—

oreris, oritur, orimur, orerētur, orere. potitur, potimur, potī, poterēmur, poterentur.

- b. On the other hand, morior, die, and some compounds of gradior, step, though of the third conjugation, have sometimes infinitives in -īrī, like the fourth.
- c. The imperfect indicative in the fourth conjugation sometimes has a form in -ībam, -ībās, etc. Thus: $sc\bar{\imath}bam$, from $sc\bar{\imath}re$, to know.
- d. The future in the fourth conjugation often has in early Latin a form in -1bō, -1bis, etc. Thus: $sc\bar{\imath}b\bar{o}$.
 - e. The second person singular of the present imperative active



has no final -e in the following four verbs: $d\bar{\imath}c\bar{o}$, say; $d\bar{\imath}c\bar{o}$, lead; $fer\bar{o}$, bring; $faci\bar{o}$, do or make. Thus: $d\bar{\imath}c$, $d\bar{\imath}c$, fer, fac. So also their compounds, except the compounds of $faci\bar{o}$ with a preposition; as, $c\bar{o}nfice$, from $c\bar{o}nfici\bar{o}$.

 $Sci\bar{o}$ has no present imperative; nor do cupe and polle occur, from $cupi\bar{o}$ and $polle\bar{o}$.

- f. The active forms of the future imperative occur instead of the passive in the early writers and their imitators. This is especially common in deponent verbs. An ancient form in -minō is found in the second and third persons singular of the present imperative of several deponents; * as, $antest\bar{a}min\bar{o}$, let him summon as a witness; $t\bar{u}$ $pr\bar{o}qredimin\bar{o}$, you go ahead.
- g. In the third and fourth conjugations the gerund and gerundive often retain the earlier endings -undum and -undus instead of -endum and -endus, especially if i precedes. *Potiundus* is the regular form. *Īre*, to go, has always *eundum* (see 248).
- 228. Among the tenses formed from the perfect stem the following points require notice:—
- a. When the perfect stem ends in v-, the v is often dropped, and the vowels thus brought together are contracted in the forms made upon the pattern of the fourth conjugation, if s follows, and in the forms of other conjugations, if s or r follows; as:—

audīssem for audīvissem
amāstī " amāvistī
implērunt " implēvērunt
nōram " nōveram
nōsse " nōvisse
cōnsuēsse " cōnsuēvisse

b. When the perfect stem ends in \overline{v} , the \overline{v} is sometimes dropped without contraction; as:—

audiisse for audīvisse petiērunt " petīvērunt

^{*} This form occurs once from a passive verb, dēnūntiāminō (3d pers. sing.), let it be proclaimed.

- c. When the perfect stem ends in s- or x-, shorter forms occur without the penultimate syllables -is-, -iss-, or -sis-. Thus: ēvāstī, exstīnxtī, surrēxe, accēstis, dīxtī, exstīnxem, beside ēvāsistī, exstīnxistī, surrēxisse, accēssistis, dīxistī, exstīnxissem.*
- d. Ancient forms of a future perfect in -sō, and of a perfect subjunctive in -sim, formed from the present stem, sometimes occur; as, capsō, faxō, habēssō, iūssō, levāssō, recepsō; ausim, cōnfexim, dīxis, ēmīssim, faxim, licēssit, locāssim. So also the pluperfect subjunctive faxem.
- e. A future passive of similar form occurs rarely in ancient Latin; as, turbāssitur, īussitur; and a future infinitive active of the first conjugation in -sere; as, expūqnāssere, impetrāssere.

Periphrastic Conjugations.

229. (1.) The future participle joined with the forms of sum makes what is called the ACTIVE periphrastic conjugation. Thus:—

amātūrus sum, I am on the point of loving, am destined or intend to love. etc.

amātūrus eram, erō, fuī, etc.

- a. Fuerō is hardly so used.
- (2.) The gerundive with the forms of sum makes what is called the PASSIVE periphrastic conjugation denoting what must or ought to be done. Thus:—

amandus sum, I must be loved, or ought to be loved. amandus eram, er \bar{o} , fu \bar{i} , etc.

- (3.) The perfect participle with the parts of sum has sometimes a quasi-adjective force. Thus, forms like amātus sum, amātus essem, etc., may be simply the passive tenses of completed action, or the verb sum may have its regular time and the participle be, as suggested, a kind of adjective.
- * Some of these were perhaps formed from the present stem like the forms treated in d, others seem to have come from the regular forms.



a. The distinctions of meaning here involved can perhaps best be made plain by a scheme like the following:—

occisus est may be equivalent to

Hist. Perf. He was killed.
Perf. Def. He has been killed.
Adjec. & Verb, He is dead.

The wicked are suffering punishment, or Men punish the wicked (always or when they are caught).

[I was loved (fui, Hist. Perf.)]
I have been loved (fui, Perf.)

b. On the other hand, the English present passive is expressed in Latin (1) by the present only when it denotes continued or customary action; as, faenum secātur, they are cutting hay; faenum aestate secātur, hay is cut in summer; (2) by the perfect when it denotes a state; as, faenum sectum est, the hay is cut; volnus cūrātum est, the wound is dressed.

Stem-Formation in Third Conjugation.

- 230. The verbs of the third conjugation may be classified with regard to their present stems as follows *:—
- a. Present stem is the root (which serves also as the verb stem) + the thematic vowel. Thus:—

regere Vreg

b. The first consonant of the root is prefixed with i (reduplication). This class contains very few verbs. Thus:—

gignere √gen (or in weaker form √gn)

c. Present stem takes t; as: —

flectere

√flec

* These formations are remnants of the verb forms inherited by the Latin from Indo-European, and were there originally produced by formative suffixes; but of course no thorough discussion of them can be given in a school grammar.

- d. Present stem takes n. Thus: -
- (1) n simply added to roots in r- (also two vowel roots); as:—

spernere $\sqrt{\text{sper}}$ linere $\sqrt{\text{li}}$ sinere $\sqrt{\text{si}}$

- (2) n added to roots in 1 and assimilated; as:—

 pellere (for pelnere) \[\sqrt{pel} \]

 fallere (for falnere) \[\sqrt{fal} \]
- (3) n inserted before a final mute (palatal or dental); as:—
 findere

 /fid

tangere \sqrt{tag}

- (4) n changed to m before a labial mute; as:—
 rumpere 、 ✓rup
- e. Present stem takes so-; as:-

pāscere √pa crēscere √cre

f. Present stem takes i-; * as: --

capiō, capere √cap faciō, facere √fac

NOTE 1. These verbs in -10 occupy a sort of midway position between the consonant stems of the third conjugation and the verbs of the fourth conjugation, as can be seen by comparing the following verbs:—

legō	legere	lēgī	1ēctus
capiō	capere	cēpī	captus
cupiō	cupere	cupī vī	cupītus
ve niō	venîr e	vēnī	ventum

And pario, parere, beside reperio, reperire.

NOTE 2. A few verbs show more than one of the formations described. Thus: discō (for di-dc-scō, Vdec), learn, belongs to the reduplicated class and to the sc- class.

NOTE 3. In some verbs the strengthened forms extend further than the present stem and sometimes through the entire verb, as in iungō, iungere, iūnxī, iūnctum, Viug, and in most of the t-class except mīttō.

* This i disappears before another i and before e, unless two consonants follow, as in the present participle, the gerund and gerundive. (Cf. the paradigm above.)

And

231. The perfect stem in the third conjugation is formed in the following ways:—

a. The perfect stem is generally the same as the present stem when the present stem ends in u- or in nd. Thus:—

Verb.	Pres. Stem.	Perf. Stem.
tribuō	tribu-	tribu-
scandō	scand-	scand-

b. The perfect stem adds s to the root:—

(1) In most verbs with a long vowel in the root syllable. Thus:—

fīgō	fīg-	fix-
lūdō	lūd-	lüs-
cēdō	cēd-	cēss-
dīcō	dīc-	dī x -
sūmō	süm-	sümps-

(2) In most verbs with the stem syllable long by position (except those in nd-). Thus:—

carpō	carp-	carps-
fingō	fing-	fīn x -

(3) In a few other verbs. Thus: -

coquō coqu- cox-

NOTE. Some (mostly roots ending in a middle mute — g, d, b) also lengthen the root vowel; as, $reg\bar{o}$, $r\bar{e}x\bar{i}$, $flu\bar{o}$, $flu\bar{x}i$ ($\checkmark flug$), $fing\bar{o}$, $f\bar{i}nx\bar{i}$.

c. The stem vowel is lengthened in many verbs with a single short vowel before a single consonant in the root syllable, a becoming e, except before b and v. Thus:—

$\mathbf{em}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	\mathbf{em} -	ēm-
fodiō	fod-	fōd-
fugiō	fug-	füg-
legō	leg-	lēg-
agō	ag-	ēg-
capiō	cap-	cēp-
scabō	scab-	scāb-
lavō	lav-	lāv-
in vincō	vinc-	vīc-

d. The following verbs form the perfect stem by reduplication.

The initial consonant and vowel are prefixed to the root, but if the root vowel is a, it is weakened to i (to e in fallo, parco, and pario); if ae, to I; and if e or o before l, to u. When the root vowel is thus weakened, the vowel of reduplication is always e. Thus:—

,		
cadō	cad-	cecid-
caedō	caed	cecīd-
canō	can-	cecin-
currō	curr-	cucurr-
dīscō	dīsc-	didic-
fallō	fall-	fefell-
[pagō]	pag-	pepig-
parcō	parc-	peperc-
pariō	par-	peper-
pēdō	pēd-	pepēd-
pellō	pell-	pepul-
pendō	pend-	pepend-
pōscō	pōsc-	popōso-
pungō	pung-	pupug-
sistō	sist-*	stit-
tangō	tang-	tetig-
tendō	tend-	tetend-
tollō	toll-	tetul- (rare)
tundō	tund-	tutud-

Findō and scindō have dropped the reduplication, making fidi and scidō. Sciscidi also occurs.

(1) For convenience the few verbs of other conjugations which have reduplicated perfects are here given:—

dō	dare	$\mathbf{ded}\mathbf{\tilde{i}}$
stō	stāre	stetī†
mordeō	mordēre	${f momordar i}$
pendeō	pendēre	pependī
spondeō	spondēre	spopondī†
tondeō	tondēre	totondī

^{*} The si of the present stem is also reduplication. It will be seen that in the perfect the stem syllable loses its s: stiti for stisti.

[†] It will be seen that the stem syllable loses its first consonant (s) when two consonants are prefixed in reduplication.

- (2) Simple reduplicated perfects have the first two syllables short, except cecīdi and pepēdī.
- (3) Compounds usually drop the reduplication, but it is retained in the compounds of $d\bar{o}$, $st\bar{o}$, $d\bar{s}c\bar{o}$, $p\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$, and sometimes $curr\bar{o}.*$ Thus:—

dēdō	dēdidī †
cōnstō	cōnstitī†
circumstō	circumstetī
perdiscō	p erdidic ī
expōscō	expopōsc ī
dēcurrō	dēcucurrī or dēcurrī

- 232. The perfect participle stem ends in so-instead of to- in the following cases:—
- a. When the present stem ends in a dental mute. A short vowel before the ending is then generally lengthened, the mute being dropped. Thus:—

cadō	cad-	cāso-
rādō	rād-	rāso-
fundō	fund-	fūso-
Sometimes assimilation	Thus :	
fodiō	fod-	fösso-

b. When the present stem adds t. Thus: —

flectō flec-t- flexo-

c. Several stems in 1 or r. Thus: -

fallō fall- falsocurrō curr- cursoSo also lābor lāb- lāpso-

d. Palatal stems which drop the palatal before s in the perfect. The palatal is also dropped in the participle. Thus:—

spargō spārsī spārsus

^{*} Abscondō has oftener abscondī than abscondidī.

[†] The penultimate vowel is thus weakened in compounds of these two verbs with monosyllabic prepositions.

Irregular Stem-Formation.

233. The following list contains the common verbs of the first conjugation which form their perfect or perfect participle, or both, irregularly:—

crepō crepāre crepuī crepitum,* make a noise.

Discrepō has also a regular perfect; increpō has regular forms and also increpui, increpitum.

cubō cubāre cubui cubitum, lie down. Perf. subj. cubāris and perf. infin. cubāsse occur. See also under 235, v. dedi datus, give.† ďΣ dare domni domō domāre domitus, tame. fricuī frictus and fricatus, rub. fricō fricāre invā iuvāre iūvī iūtus, help. Also invatūrus. micō micāre micuī --- alitter. Dimico, fight, has also the regular forms, and emicaturus occurs. necāvī or necui necātus. kill. necāre Eneco has also enectus. plicatus or plicitus, fold. plicō plicare Implico and explico have regular forms and also -plicui, -plicitus. So also applico and complico, except that complicavi is not found. The other

pōtō	põtāre	pōtāvī	pōtātus or pōtus,‡ drink.
secō	secāre	secuī	sectus, <i>cut</i> , secātūrus.
sonō	sonāre	sonuī	sound.
Some com	pounds have -so	nātūrus, and r	esono has resonavi.
stō	stāre	stetī	stand, stātūrus.

Attono has also attonitus, intono has intonatus.

tonāre

compounds are regular.

tonō

vetō vetāre vetuī vetitus, forbid.

tonuī

[†] Pōtus is really the participle of the simple verb of which pōtō is a frequentative, and often has the active meaning, having drunk.



--- thunder.

^{*} The neuter form of the participle is given when the verb is intransitive.

[†] Strictly speaking, dare does not belong to any of the conjugations, but it is usually reckoned as of the first because of its ending -are. (Cf. 240, 1.)

234. The following list contains the common verbs of the SECOND conjugation which form their perfect or perfect participle, or both, otherwise than in -uI and -itus:*—

root participio,	or boun, ounce,	The street are care and a second
a . ab-ole $ar{ ext{o}}$	abolēvī	abolitus, efface.
$d\bar{e}$ -le \bar{o}	dēlēvī	dēlētus, blot out, destroy.
fleō	flēvī	flētus, weep.
$\mathbf{n}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	nēvī	nētus, spin.
-pleō†	-plēvī †	-plētus,† fill.
b. algeō	alsī	— be cold.
ārdeō	ārsī	ārsum, be on fire.
$\mathbf{aude}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$	ausus sum	ausus, dare.
augeō	auxī	auctus, increase.
caveō	cāvī	cautus, beware.
cēnseō	cēnsuī	cēnsus, think.
c ieō	cīvī	citus (particip. adj.), call.
Among compo	unds occur excitus	and concitus, but accitus.
doceō	docuī	doctus, teach.
fateor	fassus sum	fassus, confess.
faveō	fāvī	fautum, favor.
ferveō	f erbuī	—— boil. (Cf. 235.)
Fervō, fervere,	fervī, also occurs.	(Cf. 235, i.)
foveō	fōvī	fōtus, cherish.
${f fulgear o}$	fülsī	shine, gleam.
$\mathbf{gaude}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$	gāvīsus sum	gāvīsus, <i>rejoice</i> .
haereō	haesī	haesum, stick.
in-dulgeō	$indar{u}lsar{\imath}$	${f indulge.}$
$iube\bar{o}$	iนีธร ิ	iūssus, bid, order.
lūceō	lūxī	shine, be light.
Pollūceō has p	ollūctum.	
lūgeō	lūxi	mourn.
maneō	m ānsī	${f mar{a}}{f nsus},stay,waitfor.$
mīsceō	mīscuī	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mīstus,} \\ \text{mīxtus,} \end{array} \right\} mix.$
$\mathbf{morde}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	$\mathbf{momord}\bar{\mathbf{i}}$	mōrsus, bite.
moveō	mõvi	mōtus, move.
mulceō	$muls\bar{i}$	mulsus, soothe.
Permulctus occ	ours.	

* But see 231, d, 1.

† In compounds.

mulgeō	mülsī	mūlsus, <i>milk</i> .
paveō	pāvī	fear.
prandeō	prandī	prānsus (act. meaning), breakfast, lunch.
reor	ratus sum	ratus, think.
$ride\bar{o}$	rīsī	rīsum, $laugh$.
sedeō	$\mathbf{s}ar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{i}$	${f sar essum}, sit.$
sorbeō	sorbuī	suck in.
Absorbeō has ab	sorpsi.	
$stride\bar{o}$	stridi	— whiz. (Cf. 235, i.)
suādeō	ธนลิธโ	${f suar asum}, advise.$
teneō	tenuī	tentus, hold.
tergeō	tērsī	tērsus, <i>wipe</i> .
torqueō	torsī	tortus, twist.
torreō	torruī	tōstus, roast.
turgeō	tūrsī	swell. (Cf. 235, ii.)
urgeō (urgueō)	ūrsī .	—— urge.
videō	v īdī	vīsus, see.
voveō	vōvī	vōtus, vow.

235. The following list contains the common verbs of the THIRD conjugation, arranged according to the formation of the perfect stem as given in 231:—

i. Perfect stem like present stem.

acuō	acuī	acūtus, sharpen.
arguō	arguī	argūtus (particip. adj.), accuse, convict.
b ibō	bibī	bibitus, drink.
capessō	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{capess\bar{i}} \ \ and \ \\ \mathbf{capess\bar{i}v\bar{i}} \end{array} \right\}$	undertake. (See vi., below.)
-cendō *	-cendī *	-cēnsus,* <i>kindle</i> .
congruō	congruī	agree.
cūdo		forge.

This verb has no perfect and perfect participle, but the compounds have $-c\bar{u}di$, $-c\bar{u}sus$.

^{*} In compounds.

dēgō (dē-agō)	dēgī	pass one's time.
ex-uō,	exuī	exūtus, take off.
facesso	facessī	facessitus, execute.
fīdō	fīsus sum,	fisus, trust.
Confido has so	metimes confidi.	
-fendō *	-fendī *	-fēnsus,* ward off.
fervõ	fe rv i	boil. (Cf. 234.)
icō	ici	ictus, strike.
im-baō	imbuī	imbūtus, <i>wet</i> , <i>imbue</i> .
in-duō	induī	indūtus, put on.
ingruō	ingruī	rush upon.
lambō	lambī	lick.
luō	luī	—— wash, luitūrus.
Some compound	ls have -lūtus.	
\mathbf{mand} $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$	mandī	mānsus, <i>chew</i> .
metuō	metuī	metūtus, fear.
minuõ	minuī	minūtus, <i>lessen</i> .
-nuō *	-nui *	-nūtus,* nod .
pandō	pandī	{ pānsus, } { pāssus, }
pinsō	pinsi and pinsui -	(pinsitus,) pinsus, pound. pistus,)
pluō	plai <i>or</i> plāvi	rain.
pre-hendō	prehendī (prēndī)	prehēnsus (prēnsus),
(prēndō) ·		seize.
ruð	rui	rutus (part. adj.), fall,
		ruitūrus.
scandō	scandi	scānsus, $climb$.
s īdō	sīdī	—— settle.
Compounds hav	e sēdi, sēssum, from sed	deō.
solvō	solví	solūtus, <i>loose</i> .
statuō	statuI	statūtus, place, fix, deter-
		mine.
sternuō	sternuī	sneeze.
strīdō	strīdī	whiz. (Cf. 234.)
	* In compound	la.

^{*} In compounds.

suō	suī	sūtus, sew .
tribuō	tribuī	tribūtus, assign, ascribe.
vellō	vellī and volsī	volsus, pluck. (See ii., below.)
verrō	verrī	versus, brush, sweep.
vertō	vertī	versus, $turn$.
vīsō	vīsī	${f visus}, see, visit.$
volvō_	volvī	volūtus, roll.
ii. Perfect ste	m adds s.	
carpō	carpsī	carptus, pluck.
cēdō	cēssī	cēssum, yield.
cingō	cīnxī	cīnctus, $gird$.
claudō	clausī	clausus, shut.
clep o	clepsī	cleptus, steal.
como (com-emo)	compsi	comptus, comb, deck.
coquō	coxī	coctus, cook.
dēmō (dē-emō)	dēmpsī	dēmptus, take away.
dīcō	dīxī	dictus, say.
dī-vidō	\mathbf{d} īvīsī	dīvīsus, divide.
dūcō	dūxī	ductus, lead, guide.
fīgō	fīxī	fixus, <i>fix</i> .
fingō	fīnxi	fictus, fashion, feign.
flectō	flexī	flexus, bend.
flīgō	flīxī	flīctus, dash.
fluō	flūxī	flūxus (part. adj.), flow.
frendö		{ frēssus, } gnash.
Hendo		frēsus,
Compounds have	also <i>frēsi</i> .	
frīgō	frīxī	{ frīctus, } freeze. frīxus, }
gerō	gessī	gestus, carry.
-laciō *	-lexī * †	-lectus,* † allure.
iungō	iūn xī	iūnctus, join.
-		=

^{*} In compounds.

[†] The perfects addicui, clicui, perlicui, and the participle clicitus, also occur.

laedō	laesī	laesus, hurt.
lingō	līnxi	līnctus, lick.
lūdō	lūsī	lūsus, play.
mergō	mērsī	mērsus, dip .
mingo	mīnxī	mīctum, make water.
mītto	mīsī	mīssus, send.
necto	nexī (nexuī)	nexus, weave.
ningo	กเีกหา	snow.
nūbō	nūpsī	nūptum, marry.
	(pānxī)	pāctus, drive in, pānc-
$pang\bar{o}$	₹pēgī }	turus. (See iv. and v.,
	(pepigī)	below.)
manto	pexī (pexuī)	$\{pexus, \} comb.$
pecto	berr (berm)	pectitus,
pingō	pinxī	pīctus, paint.
plangō	plānxī	planctus, beat, lament.
plaudō	plausī	plausus, clap the hands.
plectō	plexī (plexuī)	plexus, twine.
premo	pressī	pressus, press.
prōmō (pro-em	lō) prōmpsī	promptus, bring out.
quatiõ	-cussī *	quassus, shake.
rādō	rāsī	rāsus, scrape, shave.
regō	rēxī	rēctus, <i>rule</i> .
rēpō	rēpsī	rēptum, <i>creep</i> .
rōdō	rōsī	$r\bar{o}sus$, $gnaw$.
sarpō	sarpsī	sarptus, prune.
scalpõ	scalpsī	scalptus, scrape, engrave.
scrībō	scrīpsī	scrīptus, write.
sculpõ	sculpsī	sculptus, carve.
$serp\bar{o}$	serpsī	crawl.
$\mathbf{sparg}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$	spārsī	spārsus, spread, scatter.
speciō	spexī	-spectus,* see, look at.
stinguō	-stīnxī *	-stinctus,* q u ench.
stringō	strīnxī	strīctus, bind, graze.
struō	strūxī	strūctus, <i>build</i> .

^{*} In compounds.

sūgō	sūxī	sūctus, suck.
sūmō (sub-emō)	sūmpsī	sūmptus, take.
tegō	tēxī	tēctus, cover.
temnō	-tempsī *	-temptus,* despise.
tergō	tērsī	tērsus, wipe. (Cf. 234.)
tingō (tinguō)	tînxî	tinctus, moisten, stain.
trahō	trāxī	trāctus, draw.
trūdō	trūsī	trūsus, thrust.
ungō (unguō)	ũn x ĩ	unctus, anoint.
ūrō	นิธย์	ūstus, burn (transitive).
vādō	-vāsī *	$v\bar{a}sum, go.$
veho	vexī	vectus, draw, carry.
vellō	volsī and vellī	volsus, pluck. (See i., above.)
vī v ō	vīxī	vīctum, live.

iii. Perfect lengthens root vowel.

agō	ēgī	$ar{ t a}$ ctus, $drive$.
capiō	cēpī	captus, take.
edō	ēdī	ēsus, eat.
emō	ēmī	emptus, take, buy.
faciō	fēcī	factus, do, make.
fodiō	fōdī	${f far ossus},dig.$
frangō	frēgī	frāctus, break.
fugiō	fügī	fugitum, flee.
fundō	fūdī	fūsus, pour.
iaciō	iēcī	iactus, cast, throw.
lavō	lāvī	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} { m lautus,} \\ { m l\bar{o}tus,} \end{array} \right\} wash.$
A 1 7	1 1	· ·

Also lavāre, lavāvī, lavātus.

legō	lēgī	lēctus, gather, read.
linquō	līquī	-lictus,* leave.
rumpō	rūpī	ruptus, break, burst.
scabō	scābī	$-\!\!-\!\!-\!\!-\!\!scratch.$
vincō	vīcī	victus, conquer.

^{*} In compounds.



iv. Reduplicated perfects.

cadō	. cecidī	cāsum, <i>fall</i> .
caedō	cecīd ī	caesus, cut.
canō	cecini	cantus, sing.
currō	cucurrī	cursum, run.
dīscō	didic ī	—— learn, dīscitūrus.
fallō	fefellī	falsus, deceive.
pangō	pepig ī	pāctus, drive in. (See ii., above, and vi., below.)
parcō	pepercī (parsī)	parcitum (parsum), spare.
pariō	peperī	partus, <i>bring forth</i> , paritūrus.
$\mathbf{pell}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	pepuli	pulsus, drive.
$\mathbf{pend}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$	pependī	$\mathbf{p}\mathbf{\bar{e}}$ nsus, $weigh$.
põscõ	po p ōscī	demand.
$\mathbf{pung}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	pupugī	pūnctus, prick.
sistō	stitī	status ($part. adj.$), set.
tangō	tetigī	tāctus, touch.
tendō	tetendī	tentus or tēnsus, stretch.
tundō	tutudī	tūnsus or tūsus, beat.

v. Perfect stem adds v (u) to the root, after the analogy of the second conjugation.

\mathbf{a} l $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$	a luī	altus <i>or</i> alitus, <i>nourish</i> .
cellō	-celluī *	-celsus,* $push$.
cernō	crēvī	crētus, <i>decree</i> .
colō	coluī	cultus, <i>till</i> .
com-pēscō,	compēscuī	restrain.
cōn-sulō,	cōnsuluī	consultus, consult.
crēscō	crēvī	crētus, <i>grow</i> .
-cumbō *	-cubuī *	-cubitum,* lie down.
depsō	depsuī	depstus, knead.
fremo	fremuī	fremitus, roar.
[furo] †	furuī	rage.
gemō	gemuī	gemitum, groan.
# In compo	ากาศ.	t First person singular not found

gīgnō	genui	genitus, beget.
linō	lēvī <i>or</i> līvī	litus, smear.
metō	messui	messus, reap.
$\mathbf{mol}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	moluī	molitus, grind.
nōscō	nōvī	notus, learn, find out.
oc-culō	occuluī	occultus, hide.
ol \bar{o}	oluī	smell.
pangō	pēgī	pāctus, drive in. (See ii.
		and iv., above.)
pāscō	pāvī	pāstus, $feed$.
pōnō (po-sinō)	posuī	positus, put, place.
rapiō	rapuī	raptus, seize.
scīscō	scīvī	scītus, decree.
serō	sēvī	satus, sow.
serō	seruī	sertus, entwine.
$\sin \bar{o}$	sīvī	situs, lay down, allow.
spernō	sprēvī	sprētus, <i>scorn</i> .
sternō	strāvī	strātus, strew.
stertō	stertuī	snore.
strepō	strepuī	strepitum, sound.
texō	texuī	textus, weave.
tremō	tremuī	tremble.
$\mathbf{vom}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	vomuī	vomitus, vomit.
volō (velle)	voluī	— wish. (Cf. 242.)

Here may also be given consuesco, consuevi (consuetus, adj.), accustom one's self. So other compounds, and quiesco, quietu, quietum, rest.

vi. Perfect stems add īv to the root, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation.

arcessō	arcessīvī	arcessītus, summon.
capessō	capessīvi	undertake. (See i.,
		above.)
cupiō	cu pī vī	cupītus, desire.
incessõ	incessīvī or incēssī	attack.
lacessō	lacessīvī	lacessītus, provoke.
petō	petīvī	petītus, aim at.
quaerō	quaesīvī	quaesītus, ask, seek.

rūdo rūdīvī rūdītum, bray. sapio sapīvī — be wise.

Compounds have also -sipui in perfect.

terō trīvī trītus, rub, wear.

vii. No perfect or perfect participle stems.

angō, choke. glūbō, peel.

claudō, limp. hīscō, gape open. fatīscō, crack open. plector,* be punished.

fulgō, shine. tollō,† raise. glīscō, grow. vergō, incline.

236. The following list contains the common simple DEPONENTS of the third conjugation:—

am-plector amplexus, embrace.

And other compounds.

apiscor aptus, get.

com-miniscor commentus, invent.

And other compounds.

ex-pērgiscor experrēctus, awake. fruor frūctus, enjoy, fruitūrus.

fungor fünctus, perform.
gradior gressus, walk.
irāscor irātus, be angry.
lābor lāpsus, fall, slip.

līquor — melt. loquor locūtus, speak.

morior ‡ mortuus, die, moritūrus.

nanciscor nactus or nanctus, get.

nāscor nātus, be born, nāscitūrus.

nītor nīsus or nīxus, lean upon.

ob-līviscor oblītus, forget.

paciscor pactus, bargain.

patior passus, suffer.

pro-ficiscor profectus, start.

queror questus, complain.

* Only post classical in the active.

† Perf. and perf. part. supplied by the compound forms sustuli, sublatus.

‡ For irregular forms in this verb see 227, b.

ringor rīctus, snarl.
sequor secūtus, follow.
tuor tuitus, guard.
Also tueor, tuērī.
ulciscor ultus, avenge.
ūtor ūsus, use.
vescor — eat.

Re-vertor, reversus, return, and other compounds of verto, are generally deponent only in the forms from the present stem and in the perfect participle.

- 237. Except those given in 235 and 236, the verbs whose present stem ends in sc-have no perfect and perfect participle stems, or else take those of their primitives; as, adhaerēscō, adhaesī, adhaesum. When derived from nouns or adjectives they form their perfect stem (in the few cases in which they have any) regularly; those in -āscō having āv-, and those in -āscō having u-, after the analogy of the first and second conjugations; as, vesperāscit, vesperāvit; dūrēscō, dūruī.
- a. The quantity of the vowel before sc in inceptive verbs is always long, except in the few cases of verbs derived from consonant stems of the third conjugation. Thus:—

Inveterāscō, adsuēscō, crēscō, dīscō, scīscō, etc.

Short are ---

Coalesco, gemisco, ingemisco, tremesco, contremisco, vivesco, revivisco, adipiscor, indipiscor, depeciscor, expergiscor, nanciscor, paciscor, proficiscor, reminiscor, ulciscor.

238. The following list contains the common verbs of the FOURTH conjugation, which form the perfect or perfect participle stem, or both, irregularly:—

amiciō	{ amicuī } { amixī }	amictus, clothe.
a-periō	aperuī	apertus, open.
ad-sentior	adsēnsus sum	adsēnsus, assent.
com-periō	comperi	compertus, find.

. -	īvī	itum aa
eō .		itum, go.
ex-perior	expertus sum	expertus, try.
farciō	farsī	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} ext{fartus,} \ ext{farctus,} \end{array} ight\} stuff.$
fulciō	fulsī	fultus, prop up.
hauriō	hausī	haustus, draw, hausūrus.
mētior	mēnsus sum	$\left\{egin{array}{l} ext{mensus,} \\ ext{mentitus,} \end{array} ight\} ext{measure.}$
operiō	operuī	opertus, cover.
op-perior	oppertus sum	{ oppertus, } wait for.
ōrdior	ōrsus sum	$ar{ ext{o}}$ rsus, $begin$.
orior *	ortus sum	ortus, <i>rise</i> , oritū rus.
queō	quīvī	quĭtus, can .
rauciō		rausum, be hoarse.
re-periō	repperī	${f repertus}, find.$
saepiō	saepsī	saeptus, hedge in.
saliō	{ saluī } salīvī } saliī }	—— leap.
sanciō	sanxī	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} ext{sancitus,} \\ ext{sanctus,} \end{array} ight\} ratify.$
sarciō	sarsī	sartus, patch.
sarriō	{ sarrīvī } { sarruī }	sarrītus, hoe.
sentiō	sēnsī	${f sar e}$ nsus, $feel.$
sepelio	sepelīvī	sepultus, bury.
veniō	vēnī	ventum, come.
vinciō	vinxī	vinctus, bind.

IRREGULAR VERBS (Verba anōmala).

239. A few verbs take no thematic vowel in their present stems, but add the endings directly to the root, and are therefore called UNTHEMATIC verbs, or, because these forms differ from those of the regular conjugations, IRREGULAR verbs.

^{*} See 227, a.

- **240.** (1.) Originally all verbs with vowel roots were unthematic, but all except $d\check{a}re$, to give, passed over into the thematic conjugation.*
- (2.) Several verbs with consonant roots remained unthematic in most of the forms from the present stem. They are esse, be; velle, wish; $n\bar{o}lle$, be unwilling; $m\bar{a}lle$, prefer; ferre, bring; $fer\bar{e}$, become; edere, eat.

The unthematic verbs are conjugated as follows:—241. dare, to give.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

pres. indic dō†	c. Pres. 11 dăre		PERF. INDIC. dědī	PERF. PART. dătus	
	•	INDIC	ATIVE.		
PRESENT.		IMPE	RFECT.	FUTURE.	
đō†		daba	m	dabō	
dās		dabā	s	dabis	
dat	-	- dabat		dabit	
damus		dabāmus		dabimus	
datis		dabātis		dabitis	
dant		dabant		dabunt	
PERFECT.		PLUPE	RFECT.	FUTURE PERF.	
dĕdi, etc.		dĕderam, etc.		dĕderō, etc.	
		Subju	NCTIVE.		
PRESE	NT.	IMPERFECT.		ERFECT.	
\mathbf{dem}	dēmus		\mathbf{darem}	daremus	

PERFECT. dederim, etc.

dēs

det

PLUPERFECT.
dedissem, etc.

darētis

darent

dētis

dent

darēs

daret

^{*} Such are fārī, speak; flāre, blow; nāre, swim; stāre, stand; flēre, weep; nēre, spin; -plēre, fill (used only in compounds); cīre, call; īre, go; quīre, be able; scīre, know. (Cf. also 230, d, 1.)

[†] This form is, of course, thematic.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

FUTURE.

dā.* date datō

datāte

იta հ

dantā

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.

PERFECT.

FUTURE.

dare

dedisse

datūrus (-a, -um) esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. dans, dantis

Fut. datūrus (-a, -um)

GERUND. dandī, etc.

SUPINE. datum, datū

- a. The passive is regular, except that the first person of the present indicative and subjunctive do not occur.
- b. Thus are conjugated the four-syllabled compounds, as circumdare, vēnumdare, etc. The three-syllabled compounds - dēdere, ēdere, prodere, reddere, trādere, vēndere - are regular thematic verbs of the third conjugation. So also the following verbs, which are not compounds of do, dare, but of another $d\bar{o}$ (corresponding to the Greek $\tau i\theta \eta \mu i$), which means put, set: abdere, addere, condere, abscondere, crēdere, indere, obdere, perdere, subdere.
- c. Early forms of the present subjunctive occur as follows: duās, duim, duīs, duit, duint. So perduim, perduīs, perduit, perduint; crēduam, crēduās, crēduat, crēduis, crēduint.†

For esse, see 215.

242. velle, be willing, wish.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INDIC.

PRES. INFIN.

PERF. INDIC.

volā

velle

voluī

^{*} This form is, of course, thematic.

[†] For a few other rare forms, see any large grammar.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

volō volumus

vis voltis (vultis)

volt (vult) volunt

IMPERFECT. FUTURE. PERFECT.

volēbam, etc. voluī, etc. voluī, etc.

PLUPERFECT. FUTURE PERFECT. Volueram, etc. Voluerō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. IMPERFECT.

velimvelīmusvellemvellēmusvelīsvelītisvellēsvellētisvelitvelintvelletvellent

PERFECT. PLUPERFECT.

Voluerim, etc. Voluissem, etc.

Infinitives. Participle.

Pres. velle volēns
Perf. voluisse

a. $S\bar{\imath}\ v\bar{\imath}s$, if you please, is often contracted to $s\bar{\imath}s$.

243. nölle (nē-velle), be unwilling.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INDIC. PRES. INFIN. PERF. INDIC.

nölö nölle nöluī

Indicative.

PRESENT.

nōlō nōlumus

non vis non voltis (non vultis)

non volt (non vult) nolunt

IMPERFECT.

FUTURE.

PERECT.

nōlēbam, etc.

nōlam, etc.

nolui, etc.

PLUPERFECT.

nölueram, etc.

FUTURE PERFECT. noluero, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

IMPERFECT.

nölim nõlīmus ทดิโเล nōlītis nōlit nōlint

nöllem ทูดิไโคิทาเล nõllēs nõllētis nöllet nöllent

PERFECT. nöluerim, etc.

PLUPERFECT. nöluissem, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

FUTURE.

nōlī

nölite nõlitõ nölitöte

nālītā

Infinitives.

PARTICIPLE. nölēns

Pres. nölle Perf. noluisse

a. Nevis and nevolt occur in Plantus.

244. mālle (mage-velle), prefer.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INDIC. mālō

PRES. INFIN.

PERF. INDIC.

mälle

māluī

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

mālumus $m\bar{a}l\bar{o}$

māvīs māvoltis (māvultis)

māvolt (māvult) mālunt IMPERFECT.

FUTURE.

PERFECT.

mālēbam, etc.

mālam, etc.

māluī, etc.

PLUPERFECT.

FUTURE PERFECT.

mālueram, etc.

māluerō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

IMPERFECT.

mālim	mālīmus	\mathbf{m} ālle \mathbf{m}	māllēmus
mālīs	mālītis	$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{ar{a}}$ llēs	māllētis
mālit	$m\bar{a}lint$	\mathbf{m} allet	${f m}$ ällen ${f t}$

PERFECT.
māluerim, etc.

PLUPERFECT. māluissem, etc.

Infinitives.

Pres. mālle

Perf. māluisse

a. Māvolō, māvolunt, māvolet, māvelim, māvelīs, māvelit, māvellem, occur in Plautus.

245. ferre, bring.

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. ferō Pres. Inf. ferre feror ferrī

Perf. Ind. tuli *

lātus* sum

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

ferō	ferimus	feror	ferimur
fers	fertis	ferris (-re)	ferimiņī
fert	ferunt	fertur	feruntur

^{*} These forms are from other roots: tuli, from $\forall tol$, tollo; latus, for tlatus, from $\forall tla$.

INFLECTION.

Imperfectferēbam, etc.ferēbar, etc.Futureferam, etc.ferar, etc.Perfecttulī, etc.lātus sum, etc.Pluperfecttuleram, etc.lātus eram, etc.Fut. Perf.tulerō, etc.lātus erō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. feram, etc. ferar, etc.
Imp. ferrem, etc. ferrer, etc.
Perf. tulerim, etc. lātus sim, etc.
Plu. tulissem, etc. lātus essem, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

fer ferte ferre ferimini

FUTURE.

fertō fertōte fertor fertō feruntō fertor feruntor

INFINITIVES.

Pres. ferre ferri

Perf. tulisse lātus (-a, -um) esse

Fut. lātūrus (-a, -um) esse lātum īrī

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. ferens

Perf. lātus (-a, -um)

Future, lātūrus, -a, -um

GERUNDIVE.

ferendi, etc.

ferendus (-a, -um)

Supine. lātum lātū a. Reduplicated forms from the perfect stem, as tetuli, etc., are found in the comic writers.

246. fieri, become. (It is also used as the passive of facio, do, make.)

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INDIC.

PRES. INFIN. fleri PERF. INDIC.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

fīō fīs fimus fitis fiunt

flt

FUTURE.

PERFECT.

imperfect.
fiēbam, etc.

fiam, etc.

factus sum, etc.

PLUPERFECT. factus eram, etc.

future perfect. factus ero, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. IMPERFECT.

PERFECT.

PLUPERFECT.

fiam, etc. flerem, etc. factus sim, etc. factus essem, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

Present fi

fite

Infinitives.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. flerī

Perf. factus (-a, -um) esse

factus (-a, -um)

Fut. factum īrī

GERUNDIVE.

SUPINE.

faciendus (-a, -um)

factū

a. Compounds of facio which retain the full form have $f\bar{\imath}o$ in the passive; as, calefacio, calef $\bar{\imath}o$; benefacio, benef $\bar{\imath}o$. Confit, $d\bar{e}fit$, and $\bar{\imath}nfit$ also occur, but compounds with prepositions regularly form their own passives; as, conficio, conficior; perficio, perficio, perficio.

247. edere, eat.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

edō \bar{o} edere

ēdī **ēsum**

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

edō edimus

ës or edis * editis or ëstis ëst or edit edunt

imperfect. future. Perfect. Pluperfect. fut. Perf. edőbam, etc. edam, etc. ēder. ēderam, etc. ēderō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. IMPERFECT.

edam or edim ederem or essem edās " edīs ederēs " ēssēs " edit edat ederet " ēsset edāmus " edīmus ederēmus "ēssēmus edātis edītis ederētis " ēssētis edant " edint ederent " ēssent

PERFECT. PLUPERFECT. **ēderim**, etc. **ēdissem**, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT. FUTURE.

ës or ede editō or ēstō editō " ēstō editōte " ēstōte eduntō

The short forms occur in the same places in which the forms of sum begin with es.

INFINITIVES.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ēsse or edere

Perf. ēdisse

Fut. ēsūrus (-a, -um) esse

ēsūrus (-a, -um)

PASSIVE VOICE.

Pres. Ind. editur or ēstur Imp. Subj. ederētur "ēssētur

a. Ambedō has participles ambedēns and ambēsus.

Comedō has comēsus, comēsūrus, and rare comēstus; also, comedim, comedīs, comedit.

Adedo and exedo have adesus and exesus.

248. Ire, go (Vi), also presents some of the irregularities of unthematic verbs.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND. PRES. INFIN. PERF. IND. PERF. PART. eō īvī (iī) itum

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

eð Imus Is Itis It eunt

IMPERF. FUT. PERF. PLUPERF. FUT. PERF. Ibam, etc. Ibō, etc. Ivī (ii), etc. Iveram, etc. Iverō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. IMPERF. PERF. PLUPERF. eam, eās, etc. īrem, etc. īverim, etc. īvissem, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT. FUTURE.

I ite ito ito eunto

a. Compounds of facio which retain the full form have $f\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$ in the passive; as, calefacio, calef $\bar{\imath}\bar{o}$; benefacio, benef $\bar{\imath}\bar{o}$. Confit, $d\bar{e}fit$, and $\bar{\imath}nfit$ also occur, but compounds with prepositions regularly form their own passives; as, conficio, conficior; perficio, perficio, perficior.

247. edere, eat.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

edő esse or edere edi esum

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

edō edimus
ēs or edis * editis or ēstis
ēst or edit edunt

imperfect. future. Perfect. pluperfect. fut. perf. edēbam, etc. edam, etc. edi, etc. ederam, etc. ederō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

NT.	IMPER	RFE	CT.
edim	ederem	or	ēssem
edīs	ederēs	"	ēssēs
\mathbf{edit}	ederet	"	ēsset
edīmus	ederēmus	"	ēssēmus
edītis	ederētis	"	ēssētis
edint	ederent	"	ēssent
RFECT.	PLUPERFE	CT.	
rim, etc.	ēdissem,	etc.	
	edit edīmus edītis	edim ederem edīs ederēs edit ederet edīmus ederēmus edītis ederētis edint ederent exfect. PLUPERFE	edim ederem or edīs ederēs " edit ederet " edīmus ederēmus " edītis ederētis " edint ederent " erfect. Pluperfect.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.	FUTURE.
ēs or ede	editō <i>or</i> ēstō
	editō "ēstō
edite "ēste	editōte "ēstōte
•	eduntō

^{*} The short forms occur in the same places in which the forms of begin with es.

٠,

, etc.

)

s

.t

sed:

PARTVIPLE INC.

Pres come or start

Peri éciase

PRES. IND.

бõ

Par define 4 -cm esse destine (-a. -um)

PASSIVE VOICE.

Pres Ind. editor or estur

Imp. Schi, ederetur - essetur

a. Ambelo has partiriles ambedens and ambiens.

Constitution de comessis de la comessiste della comessiste de la come comedia, comedis, comedit.

Adolf and exolo have adenu and exerus.

248. ire. go (Vi), also presents some of the irregularities of unthematic verba.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PERS. INFIN. PERF. IND. īre

PERF. PART. IVI (ii) itum

INDIVATIVE.

PRESENT.

ō9 imus ĩs Itis

IMPERF. P.TPERF. ibam, acc lide acc in a second acc. ivers ac.

PEEEET.

eam. 656. 9:

IPLE. ns

forms aibās, aibat,

eunt

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INFINITIVES.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. īre

iens (euntis, etc.)

Perf. īvisse

Fut. itūrus (-a, -um) esse itūrus (-a, -um)

GERUND.

eundī, etc.

- a. In compounds, future forms in eam, ies, iet, etc., occasionally occur; and the tenses from the perfect stem more commonly omit the ∇ ; as, $abi\bar{\imath}$, redieram, etc.
- b. Istis, īssem, and īsse, occur for īvistis, īvissem, īvisse. (Cf. 228, a.)

DEFECTIVE VERBS (Verba dēfectīva).

- 249. The following verbs are used in only a few forms, and are therefore called DEFECTIVE VERBS: -
- (1.) ōdī, hate, though a perfect form, has a present meaning. It occurs in the following forms: -

INDICATIVE.

Perf.

ōdī or ōsus sum, I hate, etc.

Plup.

öderam, I hated, etc.

Fut. Perf. ōderō, I shall hate, etc.

Subjunctive.

Perf. oderim, etc.

Plup. ōdissem, etc. PARTICIPLES.

Infinitives. Perf. ōdisse

ōsus (-a, -um) (active sense)

ōsūrus (-a, -um) esse ōsūrus (-a, -um) Fut.

- a. Odīvit occurs (M. Anton. in Cic., Phil., xiii., §42).
- (2.) memini, remember, is also a perfect form with a present meaning, and has —

INDICATIVE.

Perf.

meminī, I remember, etc.

memineram, I remembered, etc.

Fut. Perf. meminero. I shall remember, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perf. meminerim, etc. Plup. meminissem, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

Fut. mementō mementōte

Infinitive.

(3.) coepī, have begun, has —

INDICATIVE.

Perf. coepī, etc. Plup. coeperam, etc. Fut. Perf. coeperō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perf. coeperim, etc.

Plup. coepissem, etc.

Infinitives.

PARTICIPLES.

Perf. coepisse

coeptus (-a, -um)

Fut. coeptūrus (-a, -um) esse coeptūrus (-a, -um)

a. With a passive infinitive the deponent forms are used: coeptus est, erat, etc.

(4.) āiō, say, has —

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT. IMPERFECT.

āiō āiēbam āiēbāmus
ais āiēbās āiēbātis
ait āiunt āiēbat āiēbant

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

ājās ājat ājant

IMPERATIVE. PARTICIPLE.

aī āiēns

a. The comic writers have the imperfect forms aibās, aibat, aibant, and treat them as dissyllables.

(5.) inquam, say, has —

INDICATIVE.

Pres. inquam -quis -quit -quimus -quitis -quiunt

Imp. inquiēbat inquiēbant

inquibat

Fut. inquies inquiet Perf. inquist inquit

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. inquiās inquiat inquiātis inquiant

Imperative.
inque
inquitō

(6.) fārī, to speak, has —

INDICATIVE.

Pres. fātur
Fut. fābor fābitur
Perf. fātus est

Plup. fātus eram

IMPERATIVE.

fāre

Infinitive. Participles.

fārī (fārier) fāns

fātus (-a, -um)

Gerund. Gerundive. Gen. fandi fandus, etc.

Abl. fandō

Supine. fātū

(7.) queō, can, has —

INDICATIVE.

Pres. queō quis quit quimus quitis queunt Imp. quibam quibat quibant

Fut. quibō quibunt

Perf. quīvī quīvit quīvērunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. queam, etc.

Imp. quirem quiret quirent

Perf. quīverit

Plup. quissent

Infinitives. Participle.

Pres. quire quiens (queuntis, etc.)

Perf. quivisse (quisse)

(8.) nequeō, cannot, has —

INDICATIVE.

Pres. nequeō nōnquīs nequit -quīmus -quītis -queunt
Imp. nequībam -quībat nequībant
Fut. nequīvit -quīvit nequīvērunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. nequeam, etc. Imp. nequirem, etc. Plup. nequisset

INFINITIVES.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. nequire nequiens (nequeuntis, etc.)

Perf. nequivisse

a. Passive forms of these two verbs are occasionally found with a passive infinitive, as with coepī (see above). So quītur, queātur, queantur, quitus, etc., nequītur and nequitum est, etc.

Note. It will be seen that queo and nequeo are conjugated just like eo.

(9.) quaesō, beg, has—

Ind. Pres. quaesō quaesit quaesumus
Inf. Pres. quaesere

(10.) Isolated forms are -

a. Imperative havē, havēte, be well, blessed, etc.

havētō

Infinitive havere

b. Ind. Pres. salveo, I am well.

" Fut. salvēbis

Imper. salvē, salvēte, be well, hail!

salvētō

Infin. salvēre

c. Imper. cedo, cette, say, let us have, etc.

d. Ind. Pres. confit, defit, defiunt, infit, infiunt,

accomplish. fail. begin.

" Fut. confiet defiet

Subj. Pres. confiat defiat interfiat (Lucr.)

Imper. confleret

Infin. confleri defleri effleri, interfleri

(Plautus)

e. Ind. Pres. ovat, have an ovation.*

Subj. Pres. ovet

" Imp. oväret

Participle ovāns ovātus ovātūrus

Gerund ovandī

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

250. IMPERSONAL verbs are such as are used only in the third person singular and without a personal subject. The most common are the following:—

a. Ten verbs denoting mental or moral states: -

decet, it is proper, becoming.

libet, it is pleasant.

licet, I, you, he, etc., may.

liquet, it is clear.

miseret, pity.

oportet, ought.
piget, be disgusted.

paenitet, repent.

pudet, be ashamed.

taedet, be weary of.

* An ovation among the Romans was a sort of lesser "triumph," in which the general rode on horseback instead of in a chariot, as in the regular "triumph."

b. Verbs denoting the state of the weather: -

fulget, fulgurat, } it lightens. fulminat.) gelat, it freezes. grandinat, it hails. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} vacescit, \\ ill ar{u}car{e}scit, \end{array}
ight\}$ it grows light.

lapidat, it rains stones. ningit, it snows. pluit, it rains. tonat, it thunders. $\left. \begin{array}{c} \textit{vesper\bar{a}scit}, \\ \textit{advesper\bar{a}scit}, \\ \textit{invesper\bar{a}scit}, \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{c} \text{evening} \quad \text{ap-} \\ \text{proaches.} \end{array}$

c. Also the following: accidit, it happens. constat, it is accepted, be- iuvat, it delights. lieved. contingit, it happens favorconvenit, it is agreed upon. displicet, it displeases.

interest, it concerns. praestat, it is better. placet, it pleases. rēfert, it concerns. restat, it remains.

PARTICLES.

Note. Adverbs, so far as they are capable of inflection, have been treated under the Comparison of Adjectives (174-176). Their further treatment, as well as that of prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, belongs partly under Syntax, but mostly under Word-Formation, and will be found there.

For adverbs (derivation), see 292, 293; — (syntax), see 557.

For prepositions (in composition), see 301 ff.

(syntax), see 428 ff., and 558 ff.

For conjunctions, see 562 ff.

For interjections, see 583.

WORD-FORMATION (Dērīvātiō verborum).

- 251. (1.) Words are either SIMPLE (simplicia) or COM-POUND (composita).
- (2.) SIMPLE words are such as contain only one complete stem; as, $l\bar{u}du$ -s, game; reg- \bar{o} , rule; $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}r\bar{a}li$ -s, natural.
- (3.) Compound words are such as contain two or more complete stems; as, māgnanimus (māgno- + animo-), high-souled; intelleg \bar{o} (inter + $leg\bar{o}$), understand.

- 252. (1.) Simple words are divided into PRIMITIVES (prīmitīva) and DERIVATIVES (dērīvāta).
- (2.) PRIMITIVE words are such as are formed directly from roots; as, $r\bar{e}x$, king, $\sqrt{r\bar{e}g}$; cavus, hollow, \sqrt{cav} ; $d\bar{v}c\bar{o}$, say, $\sqrt{d\bar{v}c}$.
- (3.) DERIVATIVE words are such as are formed from noun, adjective, or verb stems; as, $culp\bar{a}re$, to blame, from culpa (stem $culp\bar{a}$); $f\bar{e}l\bar{i}cit\bar{a}s$, happiness, from $f\bar{e}l\bar{i}x$ (stem $f\bar{e}l\bar{i}c$ -); $memor\bar{a}bilis$, remarkable, from $memor\bar{a}re$ (stem $memor\bar{a}$ -).
- a. Words derived from noun or adjective stems are called DENOMINATIVES $(d\bar{e}n\bar{o}min\bar{a}t\bar{i}va)$; those from verb stems are called VERBALS $(verb\bar{a}lia)$.

STRONG AND WEAK FORMS OF ROOTS.

253. Many roots appear in two forms, a strong form and a weak form. Thus:—

Weak Form.

Strong Form.

teg-ere, to cover. fug-ere, to flee.

tog-a, a toga.

füg-ī, I have fled.

a. There are a few instances of triple root forms. Thus: fld-es, faithfulness, $f\bar{\iota}d$ -us, faithful, foed-us, treaty. Cf. $d\bar{o}$ -num, gift, with $d\bar{u}$ -s and $d\bar{u}$ -tus.

SIMPLE WORDS.

NOTE. The origin of various Latin words is very obscure. They cannot be referred to any known roots. It is, of course, only the well established, common formations that can profitably be treated here.

Words without Suffixes.

254. A few nouns and adjectives are formed without any suffix,* the root itself serving as a stem. Thus:—

cor, n., heart; \sqrt{cord} $l\bar{u}x$, f., light; $\sqrt{l\bar{u}c}$

pēs, m., foot; √ped trux (adj.), savage; √truc

a. The unthematic verbs (see 239 ff.) also have no suffixes.

b. A very few roots are reduplicated; as, mar-mor, n., mar-ble; tur-tur, m., turtle-dove.

* For the definition of "suffix," see 56.

Words with Suffixes.

255. The common suffixes as they appear in Latin words are as follows:—

(1.) Forming vowel stems.

o-, ā-,	io-, iā-,	ro-, rā- (lo-, lā-, ri-, li-)
i-	mo-, mā-	to-, tā- (so-, sā-)
u-	no-, nā-	ti- (si-)
bo-, bā-	ni-	tu- (su-)
co-, cā-	nu-	tro-, trā-, tri- (cf. tr-, below).
do-, dā-	ļ	vo-, vā- (uo-, uā-)

(2.) Forming Consonant stems.

Suffix.	Nom. Sing.	Suffix.	Nom. Sing.
(is-	ēs	ent-	ēns
er-	us; er (is)	∫ min-	\mathbf{men}
or-	us, ur; or (ōs)	ો mōn-	\mathbf{m} ō
$\log_{\mathbf{r}}$	ōs, or	(tr-	ter (cf. tr-,
∫ in-	en; ō	₹ tōr-	tor above).
(ōn-	ō	(sōr-	sor

a. Suffixes are called PRIMARY when applied directly to roots to form the stems of *primitive* words, SECONDARY or DERIVATIVE when applied to simple stems to make the stems of derivative words.

NOTE. To help the pupil in understanding the growth of words, his attention should be called to groups like the following:—

√rub

rub-us, m., a bramble bush.
[rubi-cus.*]
Rubic-ō, the Rubicon (Red River).
rubicun-dus, ruddy.
rubicundu-lus, somewhat ruddy.

Rubr-ius, a man's name. rubri-ca, f., red earth. rubric-āre, to color red.

Rubrīcā-tus, a river in Spain.

rub-e-r, red, ruddy.

√ōs

ōs (ōris), n., mouth.
 ōr-āre, to plead.
 ōrā-tor, m., pleader, orator.
 ōrātōr-ius, belonging to an orator.

^{*} The form rubicus does not itself occur, but is presupposed by Rubicō in conjunction with words like bellicus and modicus, from bellum and modus.

Nouns and Adjectives.

256. As examples of primitive nouns and adjectives formed from roots with the foregoing suffixes may be given the following:—

```
(1.) Vowel stems:—
                                          \sqrt{scrib} + \bar{a}
  scrib-a, m., a scribe
                                          \sqrt{l\bar{u}d} + o
  l\bar{u}d-us, m., play
                                          \sqrt{cav} + o and \bar{a}
  cav-us, -a, -um, hollow
                                          \sqrt{ac + u}
  ac-us,* f., needle
                                          \sqrt{mor + bo}
  mor-bus, m., disease
                                         \sqrt{pau + co} and c\bar{a}
  pau-ci, -ae, -a, few
                                          \sqrt{gen + io}
  gen-ius, m., guardian spirit
                                          \sqrt{f\bar{a} + m\bar{a}}
  f\bar{a}-ma, f., report
                                          \sqrt{pug} + no
  pūg-nus, m., fist
                                          \sqrt{mag + no} and n\bar{a}
  m\bar{a}g-nus, -a, -um, great
                                          \sqrt{l\bar{u}c + n\bar{a}}
  lū-na, f., moon
                                          \sqrt{p\bar{a}+ni}
  pā-nis, m., bread
                                          \sqrt{rub} + ro- and r\bar{a}-
  rub-e-r, -ra, -rum, red
  s\bar{e}l-la, f., seat
                                          \checkmarksed + l\bar{a}-
                                          \sqrt{al + to} and t\bar{a}
  al-tus, -a, -um, high
                                          \sqrt{vec + ti}
  vec-tis, m., lever
                                          \sqrt{frug} + tu
  frūc-tus, m., fruit
                                          \sqrt{cad + su}
  c\bar{a}-sus, m., fall
                                          \sqrt{cor + vo}
  cor-vos, m., raven
  ar-vom, n., ploughed field
                                          \sqrt{ar + vo}
  eq-uus, m., horse
                                          \sqrt{eq} + uo
```

(2.) Consonant stems: — $n\bar{u}b\bar{e}s$,† genitive $n\bar{u}b$ -is, f., cloud.

* The primitive adjectives formed with the suffix u- all afterwards received an i and passed over into the third declension. Thus:—

```
ten-u-is, thin

pīng-u-is, fat

$\sqrt{p\ting}$ su\(\alpha\)-v-is (for su\(\alpha\)d-u-is), sweet

le-v-is (for leg-u-is), light

$\sqrt{cf. 109}$.
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later, genitive lat-er-is, m., brick.
                  gen-er-is, n., birth.
genus,
                  nem-or-is, n., grove.
            "
nemus,
                 fulg-or-is, m., flash, gleam.
fulgor,
           66
cardō,
                  card-in-is, m., hinge.
                  virg-in-is, f., maiden.
virgō,
nōmen,
                  nō-min-is, n., name.
                  ser-mon-is, m., speech.
sermō.
           66
                  pa-tr-is, m., father.
pater,
            "
                  da-tōr-is, m., giver.
dator,
```

Nouns (AND ADJECTIVES) IN -LUS, -LA, -LUM.

257. The suffixes lo-, lā-, form a series of nouns and a few adjectives from primitive o- stems, the o regularly becoming u before the l of the suffix. Thus:—

```
ānu-lus, m., ring.iacu-lum, n., javelin.ocu-lus, m., eye.cingu-lum, n., girdle.rabu-la, m., pettifogger.iugu-lum, n., collar-bone.tēgu-la, f., tile.garru-lus, -a, -um, talkative.
```

Note. Some of these words seem to have been formed from primitives once actually in use, but early supplanted by their derivatives, others to have been built upon the same pattern from roots or stems from which no corresponding primitive was ever used. This second process came about as follows: There are a few words, like speculum, n., mirror, and figulus, m., potter, which seem to have been made from u-stems rather than ostems. Having words like these and others like ānulus (from the stem ano. — the suffix 10-), the Romans confounded the ending of the stem with the suffix and transferred -ulus, as a new ending, to other kinds of stems (or roots serving as stems). So in English, having inherited from Latin words like "portable," in which the "a" belongs to the stem, we transfer this "a" with the ending and form "bearable" from "bear." This process is called formation by analogy. It is often impossible to tell whether a given Latin word was formed from a real primitive which afterwards became obsolete, or whether it simply grew by analogy.

258. (1.) The same suffixes lo-, lā- (ro, rā-), added to a series of stems (mostly obsolete) in bo- and co-, became fused with these syllables into the endings -bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum.

(2.) The endings -bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, to which for convenience may be added -trum, form neuter nouns denoting MEANS or INSTRUMENT. Thus:—

cf. $st\bar{a}re$, to stand \sqrt{sta} . sta-bulum, stall " tūs (tūris), frankincense. tūri-bulum, censer " vocāre, to call, name. vocā-bulum, word " potare, to drink. pō-culum, cup vehi-culum, vehicle " vehere, to draw. perī-culum, trial, danger " ex-perīrī, to try. " cernere, to sift, distinguish. crī-brum, sieve " luere, to wash, atone for. $d\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{u}$ -brum, shrine candēlā-brum, candlestick " candēre, shine, candēla, can-" sepelīre, to bury. sepul-crum, tomb " simulāre, make like, presimulā-crum, image tend. $\sqrt{rad} + tro$ - (primary). rās-trum, rake stem of $ar\bar{a}re + tro$ - (secondarā-trum, plough arv). fere-trum, bier cf. ferre, to carry.

DIMINUTIVES.

- 259. The same suffixes 10-, 12-, came often to have a diminutive force,* forming a large number of nouns usually of the same gender as their primitives. They also form a few diminutive adjectives. Thus:—
- (1.) From stems in \bar{a} or o-, the stem vowel appearing as u generally, but as o after e, i, and v. Thus:—

 $n\bar{\imath}du$ -lus, a little nest, from $n\bar{\imath}dus$. $c\bar{e}nu$ -la " $c\bar{e}na$, dinner. oppidu-lum " oppidum, town. alveo-lus " alveus, a hollow. $f\bar{\imath}lio$ -lus " $f\bar{\imath}lius$, son.

^{*} Compare the English "bookish" and "bluish," "sunny" and "sonny."

clāvo-lus * from clāvos, a nail.
parvo-lus, -a, -um " parvos, small.

(2.) From dental and palatal stems, with a u added by analogy. Thus:—

 $aet\bar{a}t$ -u-lafrom $aet\bar{a}s$, a period of life. $r\bar{e}g$ -u-lus" $r\bar{e}x$, king. $v\bar{o}c$ -u-la" $v\bar{o}x$, voice.capit-u-lum" caput, head.

(3.) If a liquid precedes the stem vowel of the primitive (ā or o) that vowel is dropped and the liquid assimilated, sometimes with slight further change. Thus:—

agellus (for ager-u-lus) from ager, field. patellapatera, saucer. capella 66 capra, goat. puella puera, girl. " (but puer-u-lus) puer, boy. asellus asinus, ass. pulvīnus, cushion. pulvīllus 66 $cor\bar{o}lla$ corona, wreath. columella columna, pillar. 66 sigilla (n. pl.) sīgnum, sign.

bacillum "baculum, staff.
tabella "tabula, tablet.
ocellus "oculus, eye.

And by analogy

lapillus " lapis, stone.

cōdicillus " cōdex, a writing (originally, bark).

(4.) In the case of diminutives from other consonant stems and from ē-, u-, and i- stems, the endings have the forms, -culus, -cula, -culum.† Thus:—

sermun-culus from sermō, speech.

^{*} The o was afterwards weakened to u, of course, as in the primitives. Hence, $cl\bar{a}vulus$, parvulus, etc.

[†] In some cases because an intervening stem in co- has disappeared, in others through growth by analogy.

วะนี้กานระตาปนร from rūmor, report. arbus-cula arbor, tree. $b\bar{u}$ -cula bos. cow. flos, flower. flōs-culus māter-cula mater, mother. cor-culum cor. heart. diē-cula 66 diēs, day. canī-cula canis, dog. arti-culus 66 artus, limb. corni-culum. cornū, horn.

- a. Rānun-culus, from rāna, frog; fūrun-culus, from fūr, thief; and conventi-culum, from conventus, meeting, are also found.
 - b. A few diminutives are further formations, as:—

 aculeus from acus, needle [acu +

 lo + io-].

homunciō (beside homunculus) " homŏ, man [homon $+ co + io + \bar{o}n$ -].

c. There are also a few double formations; as: —

asellulus asellus asinus.

ADJECTIVES IN -LIS AND -RIS.

260. The same suffixes (10-, lā-, ro-, rā-) with the vowel weakened and thus appearing as li-*, ri-, form a series of adjectives denoting various ways of "belonging to." Thus:—

humi-lis, lowfrom humus,† ground.agi-lis, nimble" an obsolete agus.‡ $n\bar{o}bi$ -lis, famousas if from $n\bar{o}bus$. $\bar{u}ti$ -lis, useful" " $\bar{u}tus$. $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}r\bar{u}$ -lis, naturalfrom $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}ra$.

- * There was a marked tendency of Latin adjectives to pass into i-stem forms and follow the third declension. Cf. the double forms in 155, 7, and the forms in 256, 1, footnote.
- † For the weakening of the stem vowel o of the primitive to i in the derivative, see 59.
- † The existence of a form agus is shown by the compound prod-igus beside co-agu-lum.

 $l\bar{u}n\bar{a}$ -ris, of the moon from lūna. fidē-lis, faithful fidēs. tribū-lis,* of the same tribe tribus. hostī-lis, hostile hostis.

261. Words like agilis, nobilis, ūtilis, came to be regarded as verbals. Then the endings -bilis and -tilis were added to verb-stems to make adjectives denoting TEN-DENCY (more often passive than active). Thus:—

amā-bilis, lovable. terri-bilis, terrible. flē-bilis, lamentable, tearful. versā-tilis, movable.

- a. Plausi-bilis, worthy of applause, and some others, seem to be from noun-stems.
- 262. Through the transference of the stem vowel to the suffix arose the endings -āris, -ālis, -ēlis, -īlis, -ūlis. Thus: —

mīlit-āris, military from miles. " populus. popul-āris, of the people nāv-ālis, naval nāvis. capit-ālis, deadly, capital caput. crūdus. crūd-ēlis, cruel vir-īlis, manly mir. pēs. ped-ūlis, of the feet

a. Such adjectives were often used as nouns; as, aed-īlis. m., an aedile; ovile, n., a sheep-fold; and, dropping the final vowel, pugil, m., boxer; animal, n., living thing.

ADJECTIVES IN -NUS, -NA, -NUM.

263. The suffixes no-, nā-, form another series of adjectives denoting "belonging to." Thus: -

> from $\sqrt{mag} + no$ -(primary). māg-nus,† great pater-nus, of a father pater.

66 fāgus. fāgi-nus, beechen



^{*} The long quantity of the penultimate u, i, or o, in such derivatives has never been satisfactorily explained.

[†] This suffix was originally participial.

Rōmā-nus, Roman from Rōma.

collī-nus, hilly "collis.

marī-nus, of the sea "mare.

264. The suffixes no-, nā-, form many adjectives of TIME. Thus:—

hodier-nus, to-day's cf. hodie. diur-nus, of the day " diēs. hester-nus, vesterday's " herī. " crās. crāsti-nus, to-morrow's " aevom. aeter-nus, everlasting diūti-nus, long-continued " diū. diūtur-nus. 🕻 " mātūta. mātūtī-nus, of the morning vespertī-nus, of the evening " vesper.

265. Through the transference of stem vowels to the suffix -arose the endings -ānus, -ēnus, -īnus. Thus:—

mont-ānus, mountainous from mōns.

Gracch-ānus, of Gracchus.

sēr-ēnus, calm.

terr-ēnus, earthy "terra.

dīv-īnus, god-like "dīvos.

vīc-īnus, neighboring

a. With these adjectives compare nouns like membr-āna, har-ēna, rēg-īna, pīstr-īnum, patr-ōnus, ann-ōna, fort-ūna.

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b. The distributive numerals are also formed in -nus; as, bīnī, sēnī, etc. (See 157, 158.)

ADJECTIVES IN -CUS, -CA, -CUM.

266. Another series of adjectives is formed with the suffixes co-, ca-, which added to different kinds of stems give the endings -acus,
pau-cus, few ✓pav.

belli-cus, warlike from bellum.

cīvi-cus, of a citizen " cīvis.

Galli-cus, Gallic from Gallus.

op-ācus, shady.

pud-īcus, modest cf. pudor.

cad-ūcus, ready to fall "cadere.

patr-icus, of a father from pater.

vēnāti-cus, belonging to hunting

fluvi-āticus, living in water cf. fluvius.

a. Through the Greek come words like —

Sōcraticus, of Socrates. Īliacus, of Ilium, Trojan. Corinthiacus, of Corinth.

267. A suffix c- with the vowel dropped was added to ā- stems, and the ending -āx was then transferred to other stems, the adjective thus formed denoting a (generally faulty) tendency. Thus:—

pūgn-ā-x (pūgnā-c-is), inclined to fight. aud-ā-x, bold. ten-ā-x, tenacious.

ADJECTIVES IN -IUS, -IA, -IUM.

268. Another series of adjectives is formed with the suffixes io-, iā-, which, added to different kinds of stems, give the endings -eus, -cius, -ceus, -icius, -āceus, -īcius. Such adjectives often denote MATERIAL. Thus:—

rēg-ius, royal from $r\bar{e}x$. uxōr-ius, uxorious uxor, wife. Ephes-ius, of Ephesus. aur-eus (for aure-ius), golden aurum. trīti-ceus, wheaten 66 trīticum. aedīli-cius, of an aedile aedīlis. patr-icius, patrician pater (through patricus). herba. herbā-ceus, grassy harundin-āceus, like a reed cf. harundō. from meretrix. meretrīc-ius, meretricious tribūn-īcius, tribunicial cf. tribūnus.

ōrātōr-ius, of an oratorfrom ōrātor.praetōr-ius, praetorian" praetor.cēnsōr-ius, of a censor" cēnsor.

a. From various Greek proper names are formed adjectives in -ēus and -aeus. Thus:—

Epicūrēus, Epicurean. Smyrnaeus, of Smyrna.

269. The ending -arius * forms adjectives often becoming nouns and denoting TRADE or PROFESSION (masculine), or PLACE (neuter). (Cf. 276, 4.) Thus:—

sīc-ārius, m., assassinfrom sīca, dagger.advers-ārius, -a, -um, opposed" adversus.legiōn-ārius, belonging to the legion" legiō.argent-ārius, m., banker" argentum.ōrdin-ārius, -a, -um, customary" ōrdō.tumultu-ārius, -a, -um, hurried" tumultus.aer-ārium, n., treasury" aes.

Nouns of Agency.

270. Nouns of AGENCY are formed from roots or verb stems with the suffixes tor-, sor-, masc., tric-, fem. Thus:—

da-tor, giver from $\sqrt{da + tor}$ (primary); cf. dare. $\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ -tor, pleader, orator stem $\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ -+tor-(secondary); cf. $\bar{o}r\bar{a}re$.

suā-sor, adviser " √suād- + sōr- (primary); cf. suādēre.

vic- $tr\bar{\iota}x$, conqueress "stem vic-+ $tr\bar{\iota}c$ -; cf. vincere. $v\bar{e}n\bar{a}$ - $tr\bar{\iota}x$, huntress "stem $v\bar{e}n\bar{a}$ -+ $tr\bar{\iota}c$ -; cf. $v\bar{e}n\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$.

So viā-tor, summoner, through an obsolete viāre; sen-ā-tōr, senator, through an obsolete senāre.

a. The suffix appears in the form tr- in the following: —

frā-ter, m., brother (i. e., supporter. Cf. ferō).

mā-ter, f., mother.

pa-ter, m., father.

* This ending seems to consist of ro- + io-, added at first to stems in ā- and then transferred with the ā to other stems. (Cf. first example.)

- 271. The person or (personified) thing which has to do with something is indicated by the following suffixes:—
- (1.) ōn-. Thus:—

 praec-ō (for prae-voc-ō), m., herald, √voc + ōn (primary).

 centuri-ō, m., centurion, from centuria, company of one hundred.
- (2.) ti-, dropping the vowel and forming the nominative in -es. Thus:—

eques (equi-tis), m., horseman. āles (āli-tis), c., bird.

a. Some of these nouns were originally adjectives. So $\bar{a}les$, (orig.) winged.

ABSTRACT NOUNS.

272. Abstract nouns have the following endings:—

-ia (-tia), -ium (-tium), -iēs (-tiēs) -ta, -tās, -tūs; -gō, -dō (-tūdō)

-la, -iō (-tiō, -siō); -tus, -ūra (-tūra, -sūra)

Note. Abstract nouns denoting quality are formed from noun and adjective stems; abstract nouns expressing action, from verb stems. They tend, however, to become more or less concrete, and the abstract meaning is not always easy to trace. The English "relation" used for "relative" is an example of this tendency of abstracts to become concrete.

- 273. Abstract nouns denoting QUALITY are formed with the following suffixes:—
 - (1.) iā-, fem.; io-, neuter. Thus:—

audāc-ia, boldness

from audāx. " cūstōs.

cūstōd-ia, guard mendāc-ium, lie

" mendāx.

mendac-rum, he
milit-ia, military service
hospit-ium, hospitality

" mīles.
" hospes.

a. Through forms like mīlitia and hospitium, the endings -tia and -tium were transferred to other kinds of stems. Thus:—

amīci-tia, friendship dūri-tia, sternness servi-tium, slavery from amīcus.

" dūrus, hard.

" servos.



b. Collateral forms in -ies and -ties in the fifth declension appear beside the forms in -ia and -tia of the first. Thus:—

 $m\bar{a}teri\bar{e}s$ beside $m\bar{a}teria$, material. $d\bar{u}riti\bar{e}s$ " $d\bar{u}ritia$, hardness.

(2.) tā-, tāt-,* tūt-.* Thus:—

iuven-ta, f., youth from iuvenis. senec-ta, f., old age senex. cīvi-tās, f., citizenship, state cīvis. boni-tās, f., goodness bonus. pie-tas, f., filial affection, loyalty pius. māior (-ius), greater. māies-tās, f., majesty " hones-tas, f., respectability honor, office, honor. vir-tūs, f., manliness, bravery, virtue vir. senec-tūs, f., old age senex. servi-tūs, f., slavery servos.

- a. The stem vowel is dropped in līber-tās, freedom, from līber.
- (3.) gin- and din-.† The latter is especially common as an addition to stems in tu-, giving the ending -tūdō. Thus:—

 $im\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{o}$, f., image. orī-gō, f., origin cf. orīrī. aerū-gō, f., copper-rust. vir-āgō, f., virago from vir (by analogy). torpē-dō, f., sluggishness cf. torpēre. cupī-dō, f., desire " cupere. $dulc\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{o}$, f., sweetness " dulcis. $m\bar{a}gni$ - $t\bar{u}d\bar{o}$, f., size from $m\bar{a}gnus$. forti- $t\bar{u}d\bar{o}$, f., endurance fortis. $habi-t\bar{u}d\bar{o}, \ddagger f., custom.$ $val\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{u}d\bar{o}$, f., health.

^{*} These two suffixes consist of ti- (with vowel dropped) added to real or supposed stems in tā- and tu-.

[†] I. e., go-+in-, and do-+in-.

[†] Habitus (gen. -ūs) is more common, and suggests the type on which the words in -tūdō were built.

- 274. Abstracts denoting the NAME OF AN ACTION are formed with the following suffixes:—
- (1.) la- (added to verb stems in ē-, and the ending -ēla then transferred to other stems). Thus:—

 $cand\bar{e}$ -la, f., candle cf. $cand\bar{e}$ re. $t\bar{u}t\bar{e}$ -la, f., protection " $tu\bar{e}r\bar{\imath}$. client- $\bar{e}la$, f., clientship " $cli\bar{e}ns$. quer-ella, f., complaint " $quer\bar{\imath}$. loqu-ella, f., speech " $loqu\bar{\imath}$.

(2.) ion-(tion-, sion-).* Thus:—

leg-iō, f., gathering, legion cf. legere.

īnsit-iō, f., grafting "īnserere, īnsitus.
quaest-iō, f., investigation "quaerere.
māns-iō, f., a remaining "manēre, mānsum.
cōgitāt-iō, f., reflection "cōgitāte, cōgitātus.
largīt-iō, f., bestowal of a largess "largītī, largītum.

(3.) tu-. Thus:—

 mō-tus, m., motion (contracted for movitus)
 cf. movēre.

 comitā-tus, m., retinue
 " comitārī.

 equitā-tus, m., cavalry
 " equitāre.

 moni-tus, m., warning
 " monēre.

 anhēli-tus, m., panting
 " anhēlāre.

(4.) rā- (added to stems in u-, and thus producing the endings -ūra, -tūra, -sūra). Thus:—

fig- $\bar{u}ra$, f., shape cf. fingere. $p\bar{\iota}c$ - $t\bar{u}ra$, f., painting "pingere. \bar{u} - $s\bar{u}ra$, f., use, enjoyment of a thing " $\bar{u}t\bar{\iota}$. censorship. prae- $t\bar{u}ra$, praetorship.

Nouns with Various Endings.

275. ACT, MEANS, or RESULT is denoted by the suffixes

- * These two suffixes seem to be made by adding ion- to the stems of perfect participles.
 - † Often thus coming to denote an office.

min- (oftener increased to mentō-) and mōnio-,* neuter, and mōniā-,* feminine. Thus:—

 $t\bar{e}g$ -men, tegu-men, coveringcf. tegere. tegi-men.) certā-men, strife, contest " certāre. " frangere. frag-mentum, fragment ōrnā-mentum, ornament " ōrnāre. " arguere. argu-mentum, argument monu-mentum, memorial " monēre. condi-mentum, seasoning " condīre. testi-monium, testimony. queri-monia, complaint.

- 276. Nouns denoting PLACE are formed with the following suffixes: to- (ēto-), īnā- (trīnā-, trīnō-), īli-, ārio-, tōrio- (sōrio-).
- (1.) to-, ēto- denote the place where something GROWS IN ABUNDANCE. Thus:—

arbus-tum, orchard querc-ētum, oak-grove vīn-ētum, vineyard from arbor. cf. quercus. " vīnum.

(2.) īnā-, trīnā-, trīno- denote the place where something is done. Thus:—

cul-īna, kitchen.
sal-īnae, salt mines.

tons-trīna, barber-shop. pīs-trīnum, treadmill.

- a. Nouns in - \bar{i} nā also often denote a science, and many have other meanings; as, $d\bar{i}scipl-\bar{i}na$, teaching; $medic-\bar{i}na$, medicine; $r\bar{e}g-\bar{i}na$, queen; $ru-\bar{i}na$, downfall, etc.
 - (3:) 11i- denotes especially the PLACE where ANIMALS
- * The origin and development of these suffixes, as of several to be mentioned later (ēto-, īnā-, trīna-, īvo-, ōso-, olento-, bundo-, cundo-, etc.), are partly too little known, partly too complicated, for explanation in a school grammar. It seems best, therefore, simply to chronicle them as they appear.

are kept. These nouns are the neuters of adjectives. (See 260-262.) Thus:—

ov-īle, sheepfold from ovis. cub-īle, chamber.

- (4.) ārio- forms nouns which are really the neuter of adjectives in -ārius. (See 269.) Thus:—

 columb-ārium, dove-cote. tepid-ārium, room for a warm bath.
- (5.) tōrio- (sōrio-) forms nouns which are really the neuter of adjectives in -tōrius (-sōrius). (See 268.) Thus:—

prae-tōrium, general's tent. dēver-sōrium, inn.

PATRONYMICS.

- 277. Patronymics (patrōnymica), that is, nouns denoting descent, from the name of the father or other ancestor, are formed with the following (Greek) endings: -idēs (fem. -is), -idēs (fem. -ēis), -iadēs (fem. -ias), and -adēs.
- a. The masculine patronymics (i. e., those in -des) are of the first declension; the feminines (i. e., those in -as or -is) are of the third.
- b. There are also a few feminines of the first declension in -īnē or -iōnē. Thus: —

Nērīnē, daughter of Nēreus. Acrisionē, "Acrisius.

278. (1.) -idēs (f. -is) is used with names ending in -us (except -ius), -ōr, and -s preceded by a consonant; also with those in -ōn which have the stem vowel short. Thus:—

Priamidēs from Priamus.
Tantalis "Tantalus.
Danais "Danaus.
Agēnoridēs "Agēnōr.
Cecropidēs "Cecrops.

Agamemnonidēs "Agamemnon, stem Agamemnon.

(2.) -īdēs (f. -ēis) is used with names ending in -eus or -clēs. Thus: —

Atrīdēsfrom Atreus.Hēraclīdēs" Hēraclēs.Nērēis" Nēreus.

(3.) -iadēs (f. -ias) is used with names in -ius, with many in -ēs or -ō, after the dropping of these endings, and with names in -ōn if the stem vowel is long. Thus:—

Thestiadēs {
Thestias }
Thestias }

Anchīsiadēs "Anchīsēs.
Scīpiadēs "Scīpiō.
Telamōniadēs "Telamōn, stem Telamōn.
So also Atlantiadēs "Atlās.

(4.) -adēs is used with most names in -ās or -ēs Thus:—

Aeneadēs from Aenēās.*
Hippotadēs "Hippotēs.

GENTILE ADJECTIVES.

279. Gentile adjectives (gentilicia), that is, words denoting the place or country to which some one belongs, are formed with the following suffixes: co-, cā-; io-, iā-; no-, nā-; ti-; ēnsi-. Thus:—

Fidenās (-ātis), of Fidenae. Galli-cus, Gallic, a Gaul. Arpīnās (-ātis), of Arpinum. Ephes-ius, Ephesian. Samnīs (-ītis), of Samnium. Romā-nus, Roman. Cann-ēnsis, of Cannae. Tūscul-ānus, Tusculan. Neāpolit-ānus, of Naples. Utic-ēnsis, of Utica. Praenest-inus, of Praeneste. Athēni-ēnsis, of Athens. Lat-īnus, Latin. Sulmon-ēnsis, of Sulmo. Amer-īnus, of Ameria. Vēi-ēns, of Veiī.

^{*} The change of vowel from š in the primitive to š in the patronymic is due to a secondary form, Aenčās.

NOTE. No distinct rule can be given as to what sort of stems these different endings are used with. But stems in \bar{a} - usually have - \bar{a} nus, those in i \bar{a} - or io-, \bar{i} nus, others in o-, -icus; -ius is used mostly with Greek words, and consonant stems generally have - \bar{e} nsis. Other forms also are used; as, \bar{A} fer, African; Siculus, Sicilian. Cf. also the adjectives like Smyrnaeus derived through the Greek (268, a).

PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES.

280. Adjectives with the participial meaning "provided with" are formed with the suffixes to-, tā-, which added to different kinds of stems give the endings -ātus, -ītus, -ūtus. Thus:—

from robur. rōbus-tus, strong hones-tus, honorable 66 honor. togā-tus toga, a toga. " turris, tower. turrī-tus cornū-tus $corn\bar{u}$, horn. aur-ātus aurum, gold, through aurāre. cord-ūtus cor, heart, as if through cordare. " mel, honey. mell-ītus " avos (-us), grandfather. av-ītus nās-ūtus nāsus, nose.

NOTE. Aegrātus, sick, suggests with patrānus, annāna, etc., a lost series of verb stems in ā-.

281. Adjectives with about the meaning of present participles are formed with the suffixes bundo- and cundo-. Thus:—

 $f\bar{a}$ -cundus, eloquent. $i\bar{u}$ -cundus, pleasant. $\bar{i}r\bar{a}$ -cundus, wrathful. mīrā-bundus, wondering. verē-cundus, modest. mori-bundus, dying.

282. The suffixes mo-, mā-, no-, nā-, alone and combined together, form several adjectives and nouns which were originally participles. Thus:—

al-mus, -a, -um, kindly fā-ma, f., report māg-nus, -a, -um, great. cf. alere, to raise, nourish.

" $f\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, to speak.

som-nus, m., sleep (for sop-nus; cf. $s\bar{o}p\bar{i}re$). $f\bar{e}$ -mina, f., woman.

ter-minus, m., boundary.

alu-mnus, -a, -um, cherished; hence, as a noun, foster-child.

a. The same combined suffix is found in the second person plural of passive and deponent verbs, — $regi-min\bar{\imath}$, $mon\bar{e}-min\bar{\imath}$, $am\bar{u}b\bar{u}-min\bar{\imath}$, — and in the old imperative forms like $hort\bar{u}-min\bar{o}$. (See 227, f.)

ADJECTIVES WITH VARIOUS ENDINGS.

283. Various adjectives are formed with the suffixes do-, dā-, uo-, uā-, īvō-, īvā-. Thus:—

turbi-dus, disordered

from turba.

vīvi-dus, lively.

frīgi-dus, cold cf. frīgus.

avi-dus, greedy.

herbi-dus, grassy lepi-dus, charming

from herba. g cf. lepor. from annus.

ann-uus, yearly

vac-uus, empty.

nāt-īvus, native cf. nātus.

aest-īvus, of summer capt-īvus, captive

" aestās. " captus.

284. Another series of adjectives is formed with the suffixes bri-, cri-, tri-, the last often denoting PLACE. Thus:—

cele-ber, famous.

 $l\bar{u}gu$ -bris, mournful.

salū-bris, healthful. mulie-bris, womanish.

volu-cer, winged.

medio-cris, mediocre.
eques-tris, equestrian (for

eques-iris, equesirian (equet-tris).

campes-tris, level. terres-tris, earthy.

Cf. also creber, -bra, -brum, frequent.

285. Adjectives denoting FULLNESS are formed with the suffixes ōso-, olent-, olento-. Thus:—

alīri-īsus from gloria, glory. perīcul-ōsus periculum, danger. gener-ōsus genus, birth. aestu-õsus aestus, heat, tide. " [ops], wealth. op-ulēns* vi-olēns " vīs, force. " fraus, treachery. fraud-ulentus * vīn-olentus " vīnum, wine.

- 286. Adjectives denoting various relations of NUMBER are formed as follows:—
- (1.) MULTIPLICATIVES denote how many fold, and end in -plex. Thus:—

simplex, single.
duplex, double, twofold.

quīncuplex, fivefold. centuplex, a hundredfold.

(2.) PROPORTIONALS denote how many times one thing is greater than another, and end in -plus. Thus:—

duplus, twice as great. octuplus, eight times as great.

(3.) TEMPORALS denote how many years old, and end in -īmus. Thus:—

bīmus, two years old.

quadrīmus, four years old.

NOTE. Adjectives in -ārius, from the distributives, denote the number of parts of which a thing consists, but they belong chiefly to post-classical usage. Thus: quaternārius, of four parts.

Verbs.

287. -āre, -ēre, -ēre, -īre, were treated by the Romans as derivative endings to form many verbs from noun and adjective stems. The stem-vowel of the noun or adjective, unless u, disappears. Thus:—

culpāre,† to blame dōnāre, to give

from culpa, fault. " donum, gift.

- * o of the suffix weakened to u.
- † The verbs in -are must have started from noun stems in a-, and those in -ire from stems in i-, and these endings must then have been transferred to other stems by analogy.

laudāre, to praise from *laus*, praise. aestuāre, to seethe, boil aestus, heat. albēre, to be white " albus, white. $l\bar{u}x$, light. lūcēre, to shine metuere, to fear metus, fear. statuere, to fix status, position. pūnīre, to punish poena, punishment. servīre, to be a slave " servos (-us), slave. fīnīre, to end fīnis, end. cūstodīre, to guard cūstōs, guard.

NOTE. The verbs with consonant stems (third conjugation), and many of the short verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, were inherited by the Romans from the parent language, and these verbs furnished the pattern for the verbs treated in 287. Such inherited verbs are regere, amāre, monēre, audīre. Their development is too complicated to be explained in a school grammar. Many of the simple nouns and adjectives treated above were of course also inherited already formed from the parent language, as can be seen by comparing the corresponding words in Greek and Sanskrit. Their growth, however, is much simpler and easier to trace than that of the inherited verbs.

- a. The denominatives of the first conjugation are generally transitive; those of the second are almost invariably intransitive. Cf. the examples. Those in the third conjugation are all from u-stems.
- b. Pairs of verbs are sometimes found, one usually from the weak form of a root and intransitive, the other from the strong form and transitive (causative verbs, $verba\ caus\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}va$). Thus:—

 $plac\bar{e}re$, to please $pl\bar{a}c\bar{a}re$, to appease. $sed\bar{e}re$, to sit $s\bar{e}d\bar{a}re$, to settle.

FREQUENTATIVE AND INTENSIVE VERBS.

288. (1.) FREQUENTATIVES (frequentātīva), that is, verbs denoting a repetition of the action of their primitives, and INTENSIVES (intēnsīva), or verbs denoting a forcible action, are formed from perfect participles by substituting the characteristic ā for the stem vowel. Thus:—

adiūtāre from adiuvāre (adiūtus).
dictāre " dīcere (dictus).
quassāre " quatere (quassus).
habitāre " habēre (habitus).
dormītāre " dormīre (dormītum).

(2.) From forms like habitāre, the apparent ending -itāre spread to various present stems, and also took the place of the regular formation from verbs of the first conjugation. Thus:—

agitāre from agere. minitārī from minārī. nōscitāre " nōscere. rogitāre " rogāre. clāmitāre " clāmāre.

- a. Vidēre, see, makes vīsere through vīsus.
- (3.) Double formations occur. Thus: —

currerecursārecursitāre.dīceredictāredictitāre.venīre(ad)-ventāreventitāre.

(4.) Another kind of intensives is formed with the ending -essō, rarely -issō, in the third conjugation, with the perfect and perfect participle stems generally made after the analogy of the fourth, if used at all. Thus:—

a. Frequentatives are also called ITERATIVES ($iter\bar{a}t\bar{t}va$), and the intensives in -essō (-issō) are also called MEDITATIVES ($medit\bar{a}t\bar{t}va$).

INCEPTIVE VERBS.

289. Inceptives or inchoatives (inceptiva or incohātīva), that is, verbs which denote the beginning of an action, are formed by adding -scō to a verb stem, or by analogy, to noun stems. They are intransitive, of the third conjugation. (Cf. 235, 236, 237.) Thus:—

labāscerefrom labāre.obdormīscerefrom obdormīre.calēscere" calēre.puerāscere" puer.tremescere" tremere.iuvenēscere" iuvenis.ingemiscere" ingemere.dūrēscere" dūrus.

DESIDERATIVE AND DIMINUTIVE VERBS.

290. Desideratives (desiderativa) express a desire to do something. They end in -turio (-surio). Thus:—

empturiō empturīre —— —— parturiō parturīre parturīvī (-ii) parturītum.
ēsuriō ēsurīre —— ēsurītum

Note. Others are rare and chiefly confined to the comic poets.

291. DIMINUTIVE verbs (dēminūtīva) are formed from diminutive noun-forms in -illus by substituting 5 for the stem vowel. Thus: cantillāre, cōnscrībillāre.

NOTE. The diminutive verbs are very few in number.

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

- 292. Besides the adverbs in -ē and -ter formed and compared from adjectives, given under 174 ff., the following should be noticed:—
- (1.) Numeral adverbs are formed from numbers above four by the ending -iēs. (Cf. 157 and 158.) Thus:—
 quīnquiēs, five times. deciēs, ten times.
- (2.) Certain adverbs of manner are formed with the ending -atim as if accusatives of the third-declension nouns made from the perfect participle stems of verbs of the first conjugation. Thus:—

gradātim, by degrees, slowly, as if through gradārī, gradātus; cf. gradī, to walk.

- gregātim, in crowds. Compare con-gregāre, to gather into a flock.
- (3.) A few adverbs denoting origin or manner end in itus. Thus:—

dīvīnitus, from the gods.funditus, from the bottom, utterly.rādīcitus, root and branch.

- 293. All other adverbs were originally oblique cases of nouns, adjectives, or pronouns, and are
 - (1.) Also used as oblique cases. Thus:—

 multō, much. continuō, immediately.

 tantum, so much and no more, only.

For others, see 187.

(2.) Recognizable as case forms, though no longer used as such. Thus:—

partim, partly. secus, otherwise.

(3.) More or less disguised. Thus:—

hinc, hence.

ad-eo,* to such a degree. com-minus,* at close quarters.

quasi,* as it were.

COMPOUND WORDS.

294. Almost all Latin compounds consist of two parts only, the second part forming what may be called the basis of the meaning, and the first part indicating some modification therein.

Thus, in $decemvir\bar{\imath}$, the basis of meaning is $vir\bar{\imath}$, men, and this is limited by decem to a body of ten men; in $f\bar{\imath}nambulus$, the basis of meaning is "a walker," and this is limited in the compound to a rope-walker; in vorsipellis, the basis of meaning, "skin," is limited by the notion of turning or changing, so that the compound means "changeable" (cf. English "turn-coat"); in $persu\bar{\alpha}de\bar{o}$, the basis of meaning, "advise," is modified so as to mean "advise through to the end" (i. e., carry one's point by advice, persuade).

* Words like these are of course compounds, each part being originally a case form. They are included here for the convenience of the learner.

Nouns and Adjectives.

- 295. (1.) The first part of a compound noun or adjective may be a noun, adjective, or participle stem, or a numeral, a preposition, or one of a small number of particles called prefixes.
- (2.) The second part of a compound noun or adjective may be a noun, an adjective, or a participle, but it is far more commonly a noun or adjective form which does not occur as a simple word. Thus:—

māgnanimus, great-souled vorsipellis, changeable suāviloquēns, sweet-speaking fūnambulus, rope-walker sacrilegus, sacrilegious decemvirī, decemvirs interrēx, interrex * innātus, inborn imberbis, beardless nefās, wrong sublūstris, rather light pergrūtus, very pleasing

 $m\bar{a}gno-+animus.$ vorso-+pellis. $su\bar{a}vi-+loqu\bar{e}ns.$ $f\bar{u}ni-+[ambulus].$ sacro-+[legus]. $decem+vir\bar{\imath}.$ $inter+r\bar{e}x.$ $in (prep.)+n\bar{a}tus.$ in-(neg. prefix) and barba. $ne+f\bar{a}s.$ $sub+[l\bar{u}stris].$ $per+gr\bar{a}tus.$

- a. Compound adjectives, which, like māgnanimus, indicate the possession of some quality, are called possessives. The second part of these compounds is almost always a noun. Thus: multangulus, many-cornered; quadrupēs, four-footed.†
- b. Other compound adjectives and all compound nouns are sometimes distinguished from the possessives by the name DETERMINATIVES, because their first part determines how the meaning of the second part is to be applied.

NOTE. In nouns and adjectives compounded with prepositions or prefixes, in is much more often a negative prefix than a preposition, sub has a diminutive force, per and (less commonly) prae an intensive force, as in the examples above.

- * I. e., an officer who rules between the death of one king and the accession of the next.
- † Such compounds in English generally end in -ed, as in the translations of the examples above; but compare words like bald-head, lap-streak.

- 296. (1.) When the first part of a compound noun or adjective is a noun, adjective, or participle stem ending in a vowel, this vowel is usually dropped if the second part begins with a vowel, as in $m\bar{a}gnanimus$ and $f\bar{u}nambulus$, above.
- (2.) When the second part begins with a consonant, and occasionally when it begins with a vowel, the stem vowel of the first part is retained but generally weakened to i, as in sacrilegus above, or in tubicen, trumpeter (tu- $b\bar{a}$ + [cen]), arcitenēns, bow-holding (arcu- + tenēns).
- a. Sometimes the stem vowel of the first part is only flattened to o or u, especially in compounds of early date. Thus:—

 $vioc\bar{u}rus$, overseer of roads $vi\bar{u}$ + $[c\bar{u}rus]$. $Tr\bar{o}iugena$, Trojan-born $Tr\bar{o}i\bar{u}$ - + [gena]. $quadrup\bar{e}s$, four-footed quadro- + $p\bar{e}s$.

- 297. (1.) If the first stem ends in a consonant it suffers in early compounds only the euphonic changes required by the rules in 65 ff., as $i\bar{u}dex$ for $i\bar{u}sdex$, judge (i. e., right-speaker).
- (2.) Generally, however, consonant stems assume a vowel after the analogy of the other stems. This vowel was originally o, but is generally weakened to i or sometimes flattened to u, as with the real stem vowels. Thus:—

 $parric\bar{\imath}da$, murderer of a father $patr-+i+[c\bar{\imath}da]$. $m\bar{o}rigerus,^*$ complying $m\bar{o}r-+i+[gerus]$. $pedisequa,^*$ female attendant ped-+i+[sequa].

298. Most compound verbs are formed of simple verbs and prepositions. Thus:—

 $incipi\bar{o}$, seize upon, begin $in + capi\bar{o}$. $aufer\bar{o}$, take away $ab + fer\bar{o}$. $subvert\bar{o}$, overturn $sub + vert\bar{o}$.

- * Literally, carrying (i. e., putting up with) a person's whims.
- † Literally, foot-follower.

- a. The prepositions were earlier adverbs, and in composition often retain their adverbial force. Cf. $\bar{\imath}$ prae, sequor, go before, I (will) follow (Ter., And., i., 1, 144), with ut consultibus $\bar{\imath}\bar{\iota}ct\bar{\imath}r\bar{e}s$ prae $\bar{\imath}rent$, that lictors should walk before the consults (Cic., $R\bar{e}$ $P\bar{u}b$., ii., 31, 55).
- b. The following compounds of verbs with other words than prepositions occur: —

 $adsu\bar{e}faci\bar{o}, *$
 $c\bar{o}nsu\bar{e}faci\bar{o}, *$ accustom. $m\bar{a}nsu\bar{e}faci\bar{o}, *$ tame.
 $patefaci\bar{o}, *$ open. $benefaci\bar{o}, *$
benefaci $\bar{o}, *$
calefaci $\bar{o}, *$
canake warm. $satisfaci\bar{o}, *$
 $tremefaci\bar{o}, *$
 $tremefaci\bar{o}, *$
cause to tremble.
 $m\bar{a}l\bar{o}, *$
prefer $(mage + vol\bar{o}).$
 $n\bar{o}l\bar{o}, *$
be unwilling $(n\bar{e} + vol\bar{o}).$
 $satag\bar{o}, *$
be busy enough $(sat + ag\bar{o}).$

299. In the second part of words compounded with a preposition or the negative prefix in, vowel weakening generally occurs. Thus:—

 $c\bar{o}nfici\bar{o}$, $c\bar{o}nfectum$ con+ $faci\bar{o}$, factum. $imper\bar{o}$ in (prep.) + $par\bar{o}$. $inim\bar{c}us$ in- (neg.) + $am\bar{c}us$. $in\bar{q}uus$ in- (neg.) + aequus.

a. In compounds of $iaci\bar{o}$ the verb form appears as $ici\bar{o}$, before which the vowel of a preposition ending in a vowel is retained long, and that of one ending in a consonant is often lengthened. Thus:—

ăbiciō. dēiciō. trāiciō. cŏniciō. ŏbiciō. săbiciō.

300. A very few words are compounded of more than two stems. Thus:—

 $suovetaurilia \dagger su-+ovi-+tauro-$

- a. Words of which both parts are inflected are, properly
- * The nature of the first part of these compounds of facio is obscure; it is probably a noun form or possibly an infinitive.
 - † A sacrifice consisting of a swine, a sheep, and a bull.
 - 1 These words are accented like the simple facio; as, benef a'cit.

speaking, not compounds, and in the best usage are written separately. Thus: $i\bar{u}s$ $i\bar{u}randum$, oath; $r\bar{e}s$ $p\bar{u}blica$, state; $v\bar{e}r\bar{i}$ similis, likely.

- b. So also forms like multimodīs (i. e., multīs modīs), inprīmīs, agrī cultūra, aquae ductus, pater familiās, are not real compounds, but only phrases which have grown more or less together. Perhaps also satis faciō, bene faciō, etc., should be classed with these loose unions of words rather than as compound verbs. In animadvertō (i. e., animum advertō) the union is disguised by the dropping of the accusative ending -um.
- c. From real compounds are to be distinguished derivatives from compounds, such as the following:—

beneficium, kindness, from beneficus (bene-, stem of old form of bonus, and ficus, from root of facio).

solstitium, solstice,* as if from solstitus (sol- and status). tergiversarī, shuffle, as if from tergiversus (tergo- and versus).

Cf. $c\bar{o}git\bar{a}re$, to meditate, which may be regarded as a compound of com and $agit\bar{a}re$, or as a frequentative of $c\bar{o}gere$, itself a compound of com and agere.

NOTE. Latin did not develop the ability to form compounds to anything like the extent of the Greek and other kindred languages. Most of the compounds formed, except those with prepositions or the negative prefix in-, are rare and confined chiefly to the poets.

Forms of the Prepositions in Compounds.

- 301. Prepositions ending in a consonant vary greatly in the degree in which their final consonant is assimilated with the initial consonant of the other part of the compound. Thus, in the best usage:—
- (1.) ab is written before d, h, i $c\bar{o}nson\bar{a}ns$, l, n, r, s. Thus: ab- $dic\bar{o}$, ab- $horre\bar{o}$, ab-iectus, ab- $i\bar{u}dic\bar{o}$, ab- $l\bar{e}g\bar{o}$, ab- $nu\bar{o}$, ab- $ripi\bar{o}$, ab-sum.

abs before c, t. Thus: abs-cēdō, abs-tineō.

 $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{s}$ before \mathbf{p} . Thus: $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{s}$ -port \bar{o} .

ā before **f** in $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ - $fu\bar{\imath}$, and before **m** or **v**. Thus: $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ -move \bar{o} , $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ -voc \bar{o} .

^{*} The time when the sun seems to stand still.

au before f in au-ferō and au-fugiō.

(2.) ad is written before b, d, f, h, i $c\bar{o}nson\bar{a}ns$, m, n, q, v. Thus: ad- $bib\bar{o}$, ad- $d\bar{u}co$, ad-fatim, ad- $fer\bar{o}$, ad- $haere\bar{o}$, ad- $nir\bar{a}bilis$, ad- $mone\bar{o}$, ad- $nu\bar{o}$, ad- $qu\bar{i}r\bar{o}$, ad- $voc\bar{o}$.

Generally before g, l, p, r, s. Thus: ad-gredior, ad- $lig\bar{o}$, ad- $pet\bar{o}$, ad- $rog\bar{o}$, ad-sum. Otherwise assimilation takes place. Thus: ag-ger, al- $lig\bar{o}$, ap- $pet\bar{o}$, ar- $rog\bar{o}$.

ac before c. Thus: ac- $cipi\bar{o}$.

ad or ā before gn, sp, sc, st. Thus: $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ - $gn\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$ (ad- $n\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$), ad- $sp\bar{i}r\bar{o}$ ($\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ - $sp\bar{i}r\bar{o}$), ad- $sc\bar{i}sc\bar{o}$, ad- $string\bar{o}$ ($\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ - $string\bar{o}$).

ad or at before t. Thus: at- $trah\bar{o}$ (ad- $trah\bar{o}$).

- (3.) ante has the form anti in anti- $cip\bar{o}$ (from an obsolete anti-ceps), anti- $cip\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$, anti-stes, anti- $st\bar{o}$.*
- (4.) com is written before b, m, p. Thus: com- $b\bar{u}r\bar{o}$, com- $m\bar{t}tt\bar{o}$, com- $p\bar{a}g\bar{e}s$, com- $par\bar{o}$.

con before c, d, g, i $c\bar{o}nson\bar{a}ns$, q, t, v, and generally before 1 and r. Thus: con- $cipi\bar{o}$, con- $d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$, con- $ger\bar{o}$, con- $i\bar{u}r\bar{o}$, con-queror, con- $temn\bar{o}$, con- $voc\bar{o}$, con- $leg\bar{o}$ (colleg \bar{o}), con-loguium (col-loguium), con- $ru\bar{o}$ (cor- $ru\bar{o}$).

con before f, s. Thus: $con-fer\bar{o}$, $con-stern\bar{o}$, $con-sist\bar{o}$.

- cō before gn, n, and before vowels † and h, and when contracted as in $c\bar{o}g\bar{o}$. Thus: $c\bar{o}$ - $gn\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$, $c\bar{o}$ - $nect\bar{o}$, $c\bar{o}$ - $nive\bar{o}$, $c\bar{o}$ -nitor. (Cf. $c\bar{o}n\bar{u}bium$.)
- (5.) ex is written before c, h, p, q, s, t. Thus: excelsus, ex-cipio, ex-hauriō, ex-petō, ex-qu \bar{i} rō, ex-spectō, ex-tendō.
- ē before b, d, g, i $c\bar{o}nson\bar{a}ns$, l, m, n, r, v. Thus: ē-blandior, ē-ducō, ē-gredior, ē-gregius, ē- $i\bar{u}r\bar{o}$, ē- $l\bar{a}bor$, ē-mineō, ē-necō, ē- $ripi\bar{o}$, ē- $v\bar{a}d\bar{o}$.
- ef, and sometimes ec, before f. Thus: ef- $fer\bar{o}$ and (less commonly) ec- $fer\bar{o}$.
 - * Cf. the old forms antid-ea, antid-ea, antid-hac.
 - † Comedo may be an exception.

(6.) in is written before c, d, g (except gn), h, i $c\bar{o}n$ son $\bar{a}ns$, n, q, t, \bullet v. Thus: in- $c\bar{e}d\bar{o}$, in- $d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$, in-gemisc \bar{o} ,
in- $hi\bar{o}$, in- $iung\bar{o}$, in- $n\bar{t}tor$, in- $qu\bar{v}r\bar{o}$, in-tend \bar{o} , in- $v\bar{a}d\bar{o}$.

in is also generally written before 1 and sometimes before b, m, p, r. Otherwise assimilation occurs before 1 and r; and im is written before b, m, p. Thus: in- $l\bar{u}str\bar{o}$, im- $bu\bar{o}$, in- $m\bar{t}tt\bar{o}$ (im- $m\bar{t}tt\bar{o}$), im- $per\bar{o}$ (in- $per\bar{o}$), in- $ru\bar{o}$ (ir- $ru\bar{o}$).

in before f, s. Thus: in-fero, in-sero.

- a. What has been said of the preposition in is equally true of the negative prefix in. We write, therefore, in-līberālis, inmortālis (im-mortālis), īn-sōns, in-vīsus, etc.
- b. The negative prefix, however, unlike the preposition, occurs before gn, and then has the form $\bar{\imath}$; as, $\bar{\imath}$ - $gn\bar{\alpha}rus$, $\bar{\imath}$ - $gn\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$.
- (7.) ob is written before d, h, i consonans, l, m, n, r, s, t, v. Thus: ob-dūco, ob-haereo, ob-iectus, ob-iūrgo, ob-lino, ob-mūtēsco, ob-nūbo, ob-ruo, ob-sisto, ob-tineo, ob-venio.

Assimilation generally takes place before c, f, p. Thus: oc-currō, of-ferō, op-petō.

o is written in o-mīttō, and o-periō.

obs in obs- $ol\bar{e}sc\bar{o}$, and without the b in $\bar{o}s$ - $tend\bar{o}$.

- (8.) pēr is unchanged, except in pē-ierō for per-iūrō. ē-ierō is also sometimes written.
- (9.) sub is written before d, h, i $c\bar{o}nson\bar{a}ns$, l, s, t, v. Thus: sub- $d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$, sub- $haere\bar{o}$, sub- $iung\bar{o}$, sub- $lev\bar{o}$, sub- $l\bar{u}stris$, sub- $sist\bar{o}$, sub- $tend\bar{o}$, sub- $veni\bar{o}$.

Sometimes before m and r. Thus: sub-move \bar{o} (sum-move \bar{o}), sub-ripio (sur-ripi \bar{o}).

sūs (for subs) in sūs- $cipi\bar{o}$, sūs- $cit\bar{o}$, sūs- $pend\bar{o}$, sūs- $tine\bar{o}$, sūs- $tul\bar{i}$.

sū in sū-spicere, sū-spiro.

Assimilation occurs before c, f, g, p, and sometimes m

and r (see above). Thus: $suc-curr\bar{o}$,* $suf-fer\bar{o}$, $sug-ger\bar{o}$, $sup-pet\bar{o}$, $sup-ple\bar{o}$.

(10.) trāns is written before d, f, g, m, p, v. Thus: trāns- $curr\bar{o}$, trāns- $fer\bar{o}$, trāns-fuga, trāns-gredior, trāns- $mitt\bar{o}$, trāns- $port\bar{o}$, trāns- $veh\bar{o}$.

trān before s. Thus: trān-scribō, trān-scendō.

trāns or trā before d, n. Thus: trāns- $d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$ (trā- $d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$), trāns- $nat\bar{o}$ (trā- $nat\bar{o}$):

302. Among the inseparable prepositions —

- (1.) amb becomes am before consonants, chiefly p. Thus: am- $put\bar{o}$, am-plector. But an before f, h, or a palatal mute. Thus: an- $h\bar{e}l\bar{o}$, an- $qu\bar{i}r\bar{o}$ (cf. an-ceps, an- $fr\bar{a}ctus$).
- (2.) dis is written in dis- $hi\bar{a}sc\bar{o}$, and before c, p, q, t, and s, followed by a vowel. Thus: dis- $c\bar{c}d\bar{o}$, dis-par, dis- $put\bar{o}$, dis- $qu\bar{i}r\bar{o}$, dis- $tend\bar{o}$, dis- $senti\bar{o}$ (but di-sertus, from dis- $ser\bar{o}$).

dif before f. Thus: dif-fero, dif-ficilis.

dī before other consonants. Thus: $d\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{\imath}c\bar{o}$, $d\bar{\imath}$ - $ger\bar{o}$, $d\bar{\imath}$ - $move\bar{o}$, $d\bar{\imath}$ - $scind\bar{o}$.

dis or dī before i $c\bar{o}nson\bar{a}ns$. Thus: dis-iung \bar{o} , but dī-i $\bar{u}dic\bar{o}$.

- (3.) re (so also prō) retains the original d before vowels. Thus: red- $e\bar{o}$. Also in red- $d\bar{o}$.
- 303. A few compounds with prepositions ending in a consonant suffer contraction. Thus:—

$$s\bar{u}rg\bar{o}$$
 for $sub + reg\bar{o}$. $p\bar{e}rg\bar{o}$ for $per + reg\bar{o}$. $p\bar{o}n\bar{o}$ " $po + sin\bar{o}$.

Quantity of Compounds.

- 304. Compound words generally retain the quantity of the parts of which they are composed, even though vowel change may have taken place.
 - * Here also sub is sometimes left unchanged.



NOTE. The following observations are inserted here for the convenience of the learner, although some of the words treated are not compounds; for example, quidam.

- 305. i is long in the first part of words like quīdam, quīvis, etc., if that part is declined. Thus: quīlibet, quīcumque, etc., but quidem.
- 306. The following words beginning with pro (and their derivatives) have the o short:
 - a. procella, blast, storm. $profring\bar{o}$, break up. $prof \bar{a}n\bar{o}$, desecrate. $profugi\bar{o}$, flee from. $profect\bar{o}$, surely.profundus, deep.profestus, non-festival (day). $pronep\bar{o}s$, great-grandson.proficiscor, start. $prop\bar{e}s$, a piece of rigging.profiteor, profess. $prop\bar{n}quus$, near. $prof \bar{a}r\bar{a}$, speak out.protervos (-us), forward.
- b. All Greek words, and the following with their derivatives: —

probus, first class. procō, demand.
probrum, wrong. procus, suitor.
prope, near. propitius, propitious.

- c. The o is common in $pr\check{o}p\bar{a}g\bar{o}$, f., a slip, $pr\check{o}p\bar{a}g\bar{a}re$, to propagate, and $pr\check{o}p\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}re$, to drink to the health of.
- 307. The following compounds of ne have the e long; others have it short: —

nēcubi.nēquam.nēquitia.nēcunde.nēquāquam.nēscius.nēdum.nēqvīquam.nēscio.nēmō.nēquiter.nēve.

308. The following quantities are useful to remember:—

alicubi. ubivīs. quandoquidem.
sīcubi. utinam. sīquidem.
ubicumque. ibīdem. nisi.
ubinam. equidem. quasi.
ubīque. quidem. alibī.

NOTE 1. An interesting relation exists between the consonants of many primitive words in Latin and those of the corresponding words in English, both being derived from the same (Indo-European) parent language. This relation may be indicated by the following scheme:—

Latin.	English.	Latin.	English.
e	h *	canis,	hound.
g	k	genus,	kin.
t	th	trēs,	three.
d	t	decem,	ten.
P	f	pater,	father.
b (rare)	P	labrum,	lip.
f	b	ferō, frāter,	bear, brother.
1		$l\bar{u}x$,	light.
m		mēns,	mind.
n		novos,	new.
r		rēctus,	right.
8		suāvis, √ suād,	sweet.
		•	
i consonan	s y	iuvenis,	young.
v	w	via, volnus,	way, wound.
~ T			

NOTE 2. It will be seen that, as far as the mutes are concerned, the English word shows the mute which occupies in the scale smooth, middle, rough, the place next after the Latin mute (Grimm's Law of the Permutation of Mutes).

SYNTAX (Syntaxis).

THE SENTENCE.

- 309. A SENTENCE (sententia) is the statement of a complete thought in words; as, canes latrant, the dogs are barking.
- 310. (1.) That about which something is said is called the SUBJECT (subjectum) of the sentence.
- (2.) That which is said of the subject is called the PREDICATE (praedicātum).

Thus, in the above sentence, canës is the subject and lātrant is the predicate. In the sentence, Hannibal, māgnus dux Karthāginiēnsium, sempiternum ergā Rōmānōs odium iūrāvit, Hannibal the great Carthaginian leader swore everlasting hatred

^{*} This h is the remnant of an earlier ch.

towards the Romans, the subject is Hannibal māgnus dux Karthāginiēnsium, the predicate sempiternum ergā Rōmānōs odium iūrāvit.

- 311. (1.) A sentence containing only one subject and predicate is called a SIMPLE sentence.
- (2.) A sentence consisting of two or more members, each of which has its own subject and predicate, is called a COMPOUND sentence. Thus:—

Lātrāvit canis — et fūr vēlōciter fūgit, the dog barked and the thief ran quickly away; cum pūgnae fīnis esset factus — $e\bar{o}s$ — $qu\bar{v}$ ceciderant — sepeliēbant, when the battle was finished, they began to bury those who had fallen.

- 312. The different members of a compound sentence are called CLAUSES.
 - 313. Clauses are either PRINCIPAL or SUBORDINATE.
- 314. (1.) A PRINCIPAL (also called INDEPENDENT) clause is one which makes complete sense by itself; as, lātrāvit canis, or eōs sepeliēbant.
- (2.) A SUBORDINATE (or DEPENDENT) clause is one which makes complete sense only when taken with some other clause upon which it is said to depend. Thus: cum pūgnae fīnis esset factus, and quī ceciderant, in the sentence above.
- a. Sentences which contain subordinate clauses and only one principal clause are sometimes called complex sentences; as, Phōciōn fuit perpetuō pauper, cum dītissimus esse posset, Phocion was always poor, when he might have been very rich. The term "compound sentence" is then confined to sentences which, like lātrāvit canis et fūr vēlocitēr fūgit, have more than one independent clause. In complex sentences the principal clause is often called the MAIN clause.
- b. Parts of a sentence consisting of two or more words which are not subject and predicate are called PHRASES. Thus: $m\bar{a}g$ -nus dux $Karth\bar{a}gini\bar{e}nsium$; fortiter $p\bar{u}gn\bar{a}re$.



- 315. Sentences are distinguished as —
- (1.) Declarative ($d\bar{e}cl\bar{a}r\bar{a}t\bar{i}vae$), or such as have the form of a statement; as, $vent\bar{i}$ $sp\bar{i}rant$, the winds blow.
- (2.) Interrogative (interrogative), or such as have the form of a question; as, spīrantne ventī, do the winds blow?
- (3.) EXCLAMATORY (exclāmātōriae), or such as have the form of an exclamation; as, quam vehementer spīrant ventī, how fiercely the winds blow! Utinam veniat, oh that he may come!
- (4.) IMPERATIVE (imperātīvae), or such as have the form of a command, an exhortation, or a prohibition; as, spīrāte, ventī, blow, winds; veniat bellum, let the war come; nē quaesieris, ask not.
- a. Sentences expressing exhortation are also called HORTATORY; those denoting prohibition, PROHIBITORY.

RULES OF AGREEMENT.

316. The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case, and the verb agrees with its subject in number and person. Thus:—

Egŏ scrībō, I write; nōs veniēmus, we shall come; tū legis, you read; hī Graecī sunt, these men are Greeks; Rōmulus Rōmam condidit, Romulus founded Rome.

a. When the subject is a personal pronoun, especially in the first or second person, it is seldom expressed except when it marks a contrast or is otherwise emphatic. The person and number are shown by the ending of the verb. Thus:—

Cupiō, I desire; vīvis, thou livest; habēmus, we have; dīcunt, they say. But: egŏ rēgēs ēiēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I drove out kings, but you are bringing in tyrants; tū es patrōnus, tū pater, you are my defender, you my father.

317. The nominative of the third person is further omitted:—

(1.) When it has been expressed in a previous clause (generally as subject, but also sometimes in other constructions). Thus:—

Mosa profluit ex monte Vosego et in Ōceanum influit (Caes., B. G., iv., 10), the Meuse rises in the Vosges mountains and empties into the ocean; cursorem $m\bar{\imath}s\bar{e}runt$ ut id $n\bar{u}nti\bar{a}ret$, they sent a courier to carry that news (Cor. Nep.).

(2.) When people in general are meant, as when we say "men," "they," "one." Thus:—

Dīcunt, they say; ut āiunt, as they say; māximē admīrantur eum quī pecūniā nōn movētur, men particularly admire one who is not influenced by money (Cic.).

(3.) So in treatises or discussions, when the subject denotes a type of persons, where we say "one." Thus:—

In $v\bar{v}ct\bar{u}$ $c\bar{o}ns\bar{\iota}der\bar{u}re$ oportet apud quem et quo more et $c\bar{u}ius$ arbitr $\bar{u}t\bar{u}$ sit $\bar{e}duc\bar{u}tus$, in regard to manner of living we must consider in whose family and in what fashion and under whose direction one has been brought up (i. e., the person in question) (Cic., Inv., i., 25, 35).

- 318. Certain verbs are used in the third person singular without a subject (impersonal, impersonalia). Thus:—
- (1.) Verbs denoting the state of the weather or operations of nature; as, fulgurat, it lightens; ningit, it snows; $l\bar{u}c\bar{e}sc\bar{e}bat$, it was growing light.
- (2.) The verbs of feeling: miseret, pity; paenitet, repent; piget, be disgusted; pudet, be ashamed; taedet, be tired. Thus:—

Eōs ineptiārum paenitet, they repent (lit., it repents them) of their follies; miseret tē aliōrum, tuī tē nec miseret nec pudet, you do pity others; for yourself you have neither pity nor shame (Plaut., Trin., ii., 4, 30).

NOTE. It will be seen that the real subject of the feeling here is by a grammatical idiom made the object of the verb.

(3.) The passive of intransitive verbs and of some transitive verbs. Thus:—

Favētur $tib\bar{t}$ \bar{a} $m\bar{e}$, you have my support; ad exitum ventum est, the end was reached; \bar{a} ctum est $d\bar{e}$ $imperi\bar{o}$, the supremacy is lost (lit., it is finished with regard to the supremacy).

(4.) Especially the neuter of the gerundive with est, erat, etc., denoting what must be done. Thus:—

Sī vīs mē flēre, dolendum est prīmum ipsī tibī, if you want me to weep, you must first grieve yourself (Hor., Epist., ii., 3, 102).

a. Many apparently impersonal verbs have a clause or an infinitive as subject. So especially words like accidit, happens; constat, is accepted as true; convenit, is agreed. Thus:—

 $\bar{E}v\bar{e}n\bar{\imath}t$, senibus ambōbus simul iter ut esset, both old gentlemen happened to take the same road (Ter., Phor., i., 2, 15); vacāre culpā māgnum est solācium, to be free from fault is a great consolation; $\bar{o}randum$ est ut sit mēns sāna in corpore $s\bar{a}n\bar{o}$, we should pray for a sound mind in a sound body (Iuv., Sat., x., 356); $\bar{o}r\bar{a}t\bar{o}rem\ \bar{\imath}r\bar{a}sc\bar{\imath}\ n\bar{o}n\ decet$, it is unseemly for an orator to give way to anger.

319. Two or more singular subjects generally have a plural verb. Thus:—

Furor iraque mentem praecipitant, madness and passion rob [me] of my cool reason (Verg.); grammaticē quondam āc mūsicē iūnctae fuērunt, grammar and music were once united (Quint.).

- a. The verb is always plural, when, as in the second example, it would make no sense with the subjects taken separately.
- 320. With several singular subjects, however, the verb is singular if
 - (1.) They form together one idea; as:—

Senātus populusque $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}nus$ iūssit, the Roman senate and people gave orders; mēns enim et ratio et consilium in senibus est, intelligence, reason, wisdom belong to old men.

(2.) Generally if connected by a word meaning "or" or "nor" (aut, vel, neque, etc.); as:—

 $S\bar{\imath}$ $S\bar{o}crat\bar{e}s$ aut $Antisthen\bar{e}s$ diceret, if Socrates or Antisthenes said [this].

321. But the verb often agrees with the nearest nominative, or with the most important one, and is understood with the rest. Thus:—

Tum aetās vīrēsque, tum avīta glōria animum stimulābat, then his (youthful) age and strength and the thought of his grandfather's glory goaded on his spirit (Līv.).

a. This is always the case when the verb belongs to each subject separately; as:—

Magis egő $t\bar{e}$ amõ quam $t\bar{u}$ $m\bar{e}$, I love you more than you love me.

322. When a plural verb is used with subjects of different persons, it is of the first person rather than the second, and of the second person rather than the third. Thus:—

 $S\bar{\imath}$ tū et Tullia valētis, egŏ et $Cicer\bar{o}$ valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.

323. A relative pronoun may represent any one of the three persons; its verb takes therefore the person of the antecedent. Thus:—

Egŏ, qui $t\bar{e}$ cōnfīrmō, $ipse\ m\bar{e}\ n\bar{o}n\ possum$, I, who comfort you, cannot comfort myself.

For the agreement of the verb with an appositive or a predicate noun, see 330.

For the constructio ad sensum, see 345 ff.

Appositives and Predicate Nouns.

324. A noun qualifying another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in case.

325. When the qualifying noun is annexed to the other noun without the intervention of a verb it is called an APPOSITIVE, and the words are said to be IN APPOSITION. Thus:—

 $Sc\bar{\imath}pi\bar{o}$ dux, Scipio, the general; $n\bar{o}s$ $c\bar{o}nsul\bar{e}s$, we consuls; urbs $R\bar{o}ma$, the city of Rome; Volsinii, oppidum $T\bar{u}sc\bar{o}rum$ opulentissimum, $t\bar{o}tum$ $crem\bar{a}tum$ est $f\bar{u}lmine$, Volsinii, a very rich town of the Tuscans, was wholly consumed by fire caused



by lightning (Plin., N. H., ii., 53); Tullia, deliciae nostrae, mūnusculum tuum flūgitat, Tullia, my darling, has a little favor to beg of you (Cic., Att., i., 8.)

- a. A noun may be in apposition to two or more nouns, and is then usually plural. Thus:—
- M. Antōnius C. Cassius tribūnī plēbis, Marcus Antonius and Gaius Cassius, tribunes of the commons.
- b. So when two nouns are connected by cum, an appositive takes the case of the former; as:—

Dicaearchum $v\bar{e}r\bar{v}$ cum Aristoxenō, $doct\bar{o}s$ $s\bar{a}n\bar{e}$ hominēs $omitt\bar{a}mus$, let us leave out Dicaearchus with Aristoxenus, [who are] certainly learned men.

c. A noun denoting a whole may have in apposition to it words denoting the parts (partitive apposition). Thus:—

Onerāriae, pars $m\bar{a}xima$ ad $Aegim\bar{u}rum$, aliae adversus urbem ipsam $d\bar{e}l\bar{a}tae$ sunt, the ships of burden were mostly carried to Aegimurus, others over against the city itself (Līv.).

d. Quisque, as an appositive, generally remains in the nominative even when the other word has a different case; as:—

Multīs sibi quisque imperium petentibus, while many were trying to get the power, each for himself (Sall., Iug., 18).

e. Ipse is sometimes used in the same way by Livy and later writers.

For the apposition of common nouns with names of towns in constructions of place, see 426, g and h.

- 326. In the same sense as a noun in apposition is sometimes used a genitive depending on the noun (see 351, note), especially with names of cities; as, urbs Rōmae.
- a. The expression "my name is so and so" may be translated into Latin in the following three ways: —

Camillus * $mih\tilde{t}$ est $n\bar{o}men$ (proper name predicate nominative).

Camillo miht est nomen (proper name in app. with miht).
Camillo miht est nomen (" gen. with nomen).

NOTE. Cicero uses most often the first of the three ways given.

* Lit., "Camillus is the name to me."

327. When the annexed noun is combined with the other by the copula *sum* or other similar verb (expressed or implied *) it is called a PREDICATE noun. Thus:—

 $\bar{I}ra$ furor brevis est, anger is a short madness; egő vocor Lyconidēs, I am called Lyconides; iūdicem $m\bar{e}$ esse $vol\bar{o}$, I wish to be a judge.

- 328. Predicate nouns are most commonly used with:—
 - (1.) The copula sum; as:—

Sōcratēs sapiēns erat, Socrates was a philosopher.

(2.) Intransitive verbs denoting existence, position, or motion; as:—

Haee incēdit rēgīna, she walks [like] a queen; $t\bar{u}ne$ venīs lēgātus, do you come as an ambassador?

- (3.) The passive of verbs meaning —
- a. To name or call; as: —

Cicerō pater patriae est appellātus, Cicero was called the father of his country; ille liber ōrātor īnscrībitur, that book is entitled "The Orator."

b. To choose, render, appoint; as: -

Consul creatus est, he is appointed consul.

c. To esteem, reckon, consider; as: --

Vir bonus semper erat habitus, he had always been considered a good man; artium domicilium putantur Athēnae, Athens is thought to be the home of the arts.

(4.) Many other verbs, to denote a purpose, occasion, or circumstance of the action; as:—

Puer hoc audīvī, I heard this when a boy; Brūtus consul auspicia nūntiāvit, Brutus, as consul, declared the omens.

- 329. Appositives and predicate nouns agree in gender
- * When the verb is only implied, the noun is sometimes called a PRED-ICATE APPOSITIVE; as, Cicerônem consulem creāvērunt, they appointed Cicero [to be] consul.



with the nouns they qualify, if they have a form of the same gender. Thus:—

Ūsus, magister $\bar{e}gregius$, experience, an excellent master; philosophia, $v\bar{\iota}tae$ magistra, philosophy, the guide of life; licentia corruptrix est $m\bar{o}rum$, excessive freedom is a corrupter of character.

a. There was a tendency to make the two nouns agree in number also. Thus: —

 $Om\bar{\imath}tt\bar{\imath}$ illās omnium doctr $\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$ rum inventrīcēs Athēnās, I leave out Athens, that well known discoverer of all the branches of learning (cf. Cic., $d\bar{e}$ $\bar{O}r.$, i., 4, 13).

b. When a verb has a complementary infinitive (see 532) dependent upon it, its predicate noun is still nominative; as:—

 $N\bar{v}l\bar{i}$ esse $sceler\bar{u}t\bar{v}rum$ laudātor, I would not be a eulogist of rascals.

c. In the poets a similar usage is sometimes found, by which an infinitive which should have a subject is used without a subject, and the predicate noun which would be in the accusative is attracted into the nominative; as:—

Uxor invictī Iovis esse nēscīs, know'st thou not thou art the wife of Jove invincible?

330. A verb sometimes agrees with a predicate noun, or a noun in apposition with the subject, especially if it is nearer than the subject. Thus:—

Amantium $\bar{\imath}$ rae am \bar{o} ris integratio est, the quarrels of lovers are a renewal of love (Ter., An., iii., 3, 23); $Tungr\bar{\imath}$, $c\bar{\imath}$ vitās Galliae, fontem habet $\bar{\imath}ns\bar{\imath}gnem$, the Tungri, a state of Gaul, have a remarkable fountain (Plin., N.H., xxxi., 2 (8), 12).

NOTE. This is always the case when the appositive is the name of a person.

Kindred Constructions.

331. Instead of a predicate noun (nominative or accusative), occur also:—

- (1.) A dative of service (see 385); as, hoc miht erat cūrae.
- (2.) An ablative with $pr\bar{o}$ (see 430); as, pr \bar{o} filio eum habēbat.
- (3.) A genitive after loco, in place of, or in numero, in the number of.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

- 332. ADJECTIVES, ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS, and PARTICIPLES agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case.
- 333. When such words are applied to their nouns directly they are called ATTRIBUTIVES. Thus:—

Bonus vir, a good man; benīgna $m\bar{a}ter$, a kind mother; haec $r\bar{e}s$, this thing.

334. When they are applied indirectly (by means of a verb expressed or implied) they are called PREDICATE adjectives, etc. Thus:—

Mea mater est benigna, my mother is kind; hae $l\bar{e}g\bar{e}s$ utilissimae ducuntur, these laws are considered most beneficial; hae sunt $v\bar{e}rae$ $d\bar{v}vitiae$, this is real riches.

NOTE. Appositives and attributives assume the thing said of the noun which they qualify; predicate nouns, adjectives, etc., affirm it.

335. Adjectives * belonging to two or more nouns of the same gender are put in the plural. Thus:—

Et hie imperator et ille scriptor praeclari sunt, both this general and that writer are famous.

336. When the nouns are of different genders, if they denote things with life, the adjective is masculine rather than feminine; if they denote things without life, the adjective is generally neuter. Thus:—

Pater mihit et mater mortui sunt, my father and mother

* Whatever is said of the agreement of adjectives applies also, of course, to adjective pronouns and participles.



are dead; rēgna, imperia, nōbilitātēs, honōrēs, dīvitiae, $in\ c\bar{a}s\bar{u}$ sita sunt, kingdoms, offices, distinctions, honors, riches, depended on chance.

NOTE. This is the more common use with a predicate adjective.

- 337. Or the adjective may be —
- (1.) Repeated with each noun; as: -

Semproniae multae facētiae multusque lepos inerat, Sempronia was gifted with much wit and grace.

(2.) Expressed with one noun and understood with the others; as:—

Hominis $\bar{u}tilit\bar{u}t\bar{\imath}$ agrī omnēs et maria $p\bar{u}rent$, all lands and seas serve the needs of mankind.

NOTE. These two uses are perhaps the more common with attributive adjectives. (Compare the agreement of the verb with several subjects, 319-321.)

338. Two adjectives in the singular often belong to a plural noun; as:—

Cum legionibus secunda et tertia, with the second and third legions.

a. A singular noun, denoting different instances of the same kind, may have several adjectives agreeing with it; as:—

Bellum Pünicum et Hispāniēnse, the Punic and Spanish wars.

339. Any part of speech used as a mere word is treated as a neuter noun, and takes an adjective in the neuter singular. Thus:—

Suprēmum valē $d\bar{\imath}xit$, he uttered the last farewell; crās istud $quand\bar{o}\ venit$? when is that to-morrow you mention coming?

340. When the subject of an infinitive is omitted after a dative denoting the same person or thing, a predicate adjective is sometimes put in the dative, sometimes in the accusative, as if the subject had been expressed. Thus:—

 $D\bar{a}$ mihř iūstō sanctōque vidērī, grant me to seem just and holy; $s\bar{i}$ $c\bar{i}v\bar{i}$ $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}n\bar{o}$ licet esse Gādītānum, if a Roman citizen may [also] be a citizen of Cades.

341. A participle which should regularly agree with the subject of a clause sometimes agrees with a predicate noun, or with a noun in apposition with the subject, if these are nearer the participle. (Cf. 330.) Thus:—

Non omnis error stultitia est dicenda, not every mistake is to be called folly; illorum urbem ut propūgnāculum oppositum esse barbarīs, [he said] their city stood as a bulwark in the way of the barbarians.

a. An adjective which belongs in sense to a genitive is sometimes made to agree with the noun on which the genitive depends. Thus:—

Ad māiōra initia $r\bar{e}rum$ $d\bar{u}centibus$ $f\bar{a}t\bar{i}s$, the fates leading to the beginnings of greater things.

b. An adjective belonging to a noun upon which a partitive genitive depends sometimes takes the gender of that genitive; as:—

Vēlocissimum omnium animālium est delphīnus, the swiftest of all animals is the dolphin.

c. An adjective which belongs in sense to the antecedent of a relative pronoun is often put into the relative clause and made to agree with the relative. Thus:—

Inter iocos quos inconditos iaciunt, among the rude jests which they bandy about.

NOTE. This is the usual arrangement with numerals, comparatives, and superlatives. Thus: nocte quam in terris ültimam ēgit, the last night he spent on earth; Aesculāpius, qui prīmus volnus obligāvisse dicitur, Æsculapius, who is said to have been the first to bind up a wound.

AGREEMENT OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

342. RELATIVE PRONOUNS agree with their antecedents in gender and number, but their case depends upon

the construction of the clause to which they belong.*
Thus:—

Puer quī legit, the boy who reads; egŏ nōn sum quālis eram, I am not such as I was; Deus, cūius mūnere vīvimus, cui nūllus est similis, quem colimus, ā quō facta sunt omnia, est aeternus, God, by whose bounty we live, whom none is like unto, whom we worship, by whom all things were made, is eternal.

a. The relative pronoun seems to have been originally an adjective pronoun agreeing with a noun in its own clause and referring to another case of the same noun with a demonstrative or similar word in the antecedent clause. Examples of such use still occurred in classical Latin; as:—

Erant omn $\bar{\imath}n\bar{o}$ duo itinera quibus itineribus dom \bar{o} ex $\bar{\imath}re$ possent, there were only two routes by which (routes) they could go from home (Cæs., B. G., i., 6).

- b. Usually, however, only one of these nouns is expressed; as:—
 - (1.) The antecedent noun expressed; as:—

Tantae multitūdinis quantam capit urbs nostra concursus est ad mē factus, there was a gathering to meet me of a crowd as large as our city contains (Cic.).

(2.) The noun in the relative clause expressed; as: -

Quibus $d\bar{e}$ rebus ad $m\bar{e}$ scrīpsistī coram videbimus, we will see about the things of which you wrote me when we meet (Cic.); in quem prīmum ēgressī sunt locum $Tr\bar{o}ia$ vocātur, the first place at which they landed is called Troy (Līv.).

- c. The noun is most commonly thus expressed in the relative clause only: —
- (1.) When, as in the examples, the relative clause precedes. A demonstrative then often stands in the second clause; as:—

Ad quas res aptissīmī erimus, in ils potissimum ēlaborābimus, we shall toil most earnestly in those things for which we are best fitted.

* The rule applies, of course, not only to relative pronouns proper, but to all pronouns used to refer to words in clauses other than their own.

(2.) When the noun is in apposition with some word in the antecedent clause, or with the antecedent clause itself; as:—

Santonēs non longē ā Tolosātium fīnibus absunt, quae cīvitās est in provinciā, the Santones are not far from the borders of the Tolosates, which state is in the Province (Caes.).

d. Sometimes the relative clause comes between the antecedent noun and the rest of the antecedent clause. The antecedent then usually has the case of the relative. Thus:—

Urbem quam statuo vestra est, the city which I am building is yours.

e. Occasionally the relative takes the case of the antecedent instead of its own proper case. Thus:—

Cum scrībās et aliquid agās eōrum quōrum cōnsuēstī, when you write and speak of some one of the things you are wont to speak of (Cic., Fam., v., 14, 1).

Note. d and e are called cases of attraction, and are rare in classical prose.

343. When two or more clauses in which the relative has different constructions refer to the same antecedent, sometimes the relative is repeated in different cases (as in the third example under 342), sometimes only the first relative is expressed and the others are either omitted or represented by demonstratives. Thus:—

Bocchus cum peditibus, quōs fīlius ēius addūxerat, neque in priōre pūgnā adfuerant, Rōmānōs invādunt, Bocchus and the infantry which his son had brought and [which] had not taken part in the earlier battle attack the Romans; Brūtus ille cui Caesar īgnōverat et eum posteā fīlium ferē habuerat, that Brutus whom Caesar had pardoned and had afterwards treated almost like a son.

a. When a predicate noun is used with a relative, the pronoun commonly agrees with the predicate noun rather than with the antecedent. Thus:—

Carcer ille quae lautumiae vocantur, that dungeon which is called the "Stone Quarry."

b. But if the sentence is negative or if the predicate noun is a proper name, the relative agrees with its antecedent as by the general rule. Thus:—

Nüllum factum quod stultitia appell $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ potest laude d $\bar{\imath}gnum$ est, no act which can be called folly is worthy of praise; $fl\bar{u}men$ quod $n\bar{o}min\bar{a}tur$ Rhēnus, the river which is called the Rhine.

344. A relative having more than one antecedent is always plural, but its gender is regulated like that of adjectives (see 336 and 337). Thus:—

Nīnus et Semīramis quī Babylona condiderant, Ninus and Semiramis who had founded Babylon; nāvēs et captīvōs* quae ad Chium capta erant, the ships and prisoners which had been taken at Chios; tū et pater, quī in convīviō erātis, you and father, who were at the feast.

Constructio ad Sensum.

- 345. Sometimes the various kinds of words whose agreements have been treated in the foregoing sections regulate their agreement not by the grammatical form as described, but in accordance with the real meaning involved. This is called Constructio add sensum, construction according to the meaning. It is particularly common where the word which settles the agreement is a collective noun.
 - 346. Thus a plural verb is often used: —
 - (1.) When the subject is a collective word; as: -

Uterque $e\bar{o}rum$ ex $castr\bar{i}s$ exercitum \bar{e} ducunt, both of them lead their armies out of camp (Cæs.); pars $epul\bar{i}s$ onerant $m\bar{e}ns\bar{a}s$, some load the tables with food (Verg.).

a. Abstract nouns, and nouns like $m\bar{\imath}les$, eques, etc., are often used collectively; as, $n\bar{\imath}bilit\bar{\imath}as$ for "nobles," eques for "the cavalry."

NOTE. The plural verb serves to bring out more distinctly the individu-

* Treated as "things."

ality of the persons meant by the collective noun. The construction is rare in simple sentences in Cicero, Cæsar, and Sallust, common in Livy, and especially frequent in poetry.

(2.) With a singular subject combined with *cum* and the ablative; as:—

Bocchus cum peditibus postrēmam Rōmānōrum aciem invādunt, Bocchus and his infantry attack the rear of the Roman line (Sall., Iug.).

- 347. So also the number and gender of an adjective sometimes follow the sense implied:—
 - (1.) In a collective noun or its equivalent; as:—

Pars per agros dīlāpsī... suam quisque spem exsequentēs, part, scattering through the country, ... following each his own hope (Līv.); Latium Capuaque agro multātī, Latium and Capua were fined in land (i. e., forced to give up part of their territory) (Līv.).

- a. In such cases, when the verb is plural (see 346) the adjective is always plural.
- b. Sometimes, especially in poetry, only the gender is regulated by the constructio ad sensum. Thus:—

Pars arduus altīs pulverulentus equīs furit, part raised aloft on tall horses dash about covered with dust (Verg.).

c. Sallust often, and other writers sometimes, thus use a neuter adjective with several feminine nouns which denote things. Thus:—

Plērosque vēlōcitās et regio hostibus īgnāra tūtāta sunt, their speed and the enemy's ignorance of the country saved most of them (Sall.).

(2.) When the word with which the adjective would agree is implied in a possessive pronoun. Thus:—

Sōlīus meum peccātum conrigī non potest, my sin only cannot be made good (Cic.); cf. pūgna Rōmāna stabilis suō pondere incumbentium in hostem, the fighting of the Romans

[was] invincible as they bore down upon the enemy with the very weight of their line (Līv.).

- 348. Examples of similar agreement on the part of the relative are
 - (1.) Antecedent a collective word; as: -

Equitatum, quos miserat, the cavalry, whom he had sent; genus, qui premuntur, a class who are crushed (Cic.).

(2.) Antecedent not a collective word; as: —

Abundantia eārum rērum, quae mortālēs prīma putant, a plenty of those things which mankind imagine of the first importance (Sall.).

(3.) Antecedent implied in a possessive pronoun, or similar adjective; as:—

Nostrum consilium laudandum est, qui noluerim, my design is praiseworthy, who was unwilling (Cic.).

For the remaining syntax of adjectives and pronouns, see 438 ff.

CASES (Cāsūs).

NOMINATIVE (Nominātīvus).

- 349. Except as already treated (namely, as the subject of a verb or as an appositive or predicate noun), the NOMINATIVE is used only as follows, and that rarely.
 - (1.) In the poets.
 - a. With an interjection, to make an exclamation; as: -

 $\bar{E}n$ egő, vester Ascanius, here am I, your Ascanius (Verg., Ae., v., 672).

- b. Instead of the vocative; as: —
- Ō vir fortis atque amīcus, O brave man and friendly (Ter.).
- (2.) In the poets and late prose writers, as the mere name of a word independently of the construction of the sentence. Thus:—

Resonent mihř "Cynthia" silvae, let the woods reëcho me "Cynthia" (Prop., i., 18, 31).

GENITIVE (Genetīvus).

350. The GENITIVE is properly the case which expresses the relation of one noun to another, and is in its nature equivalent to an adjective.

NOTE. The genitive came to be used with certain adjectives and verbs, as well as with nouns. Its various uses may be thus tabulated:—

Genitive of Source, Cause, or Material. Genitive of Possession. Partitive Genitive. Genitive of Characteristic. Predicate Genitive. OBJECTIVE. With Nouns of Action or Feeling. "Adjectives. of Pity, etc. "Feeling. "Remembering, etc. "Accusing, etc. Interest and Refert.

351. Any noun limiting the meaning of another and not denoting the same thing is regularly put in the genitive. Thus:—

Genitive of Price.

Glōriae amor, love of glory; arma Achillis, the arms of Achilles; nemorum $c\bar{u}st\bar{o}s$, the guardian of groves.

NOTE. The difference between an appositive and a limiting genitive is that the appositive denotes the same thing as the noun modified by it, while the genitive regularly denotes a different thing, although occasionally used like an appositive, as in vitium irae, urbs Romae. (Cf. 326.)

- 352. Many relations which in English are expressed by prepositions are denoted in Latin by the genitive. Some of the commonest are
 - (1.) Source; as, solis radii, the rays of the sun.
 - (2.) Cause; as, dolor podagrae, pain from the gout.
- (3.) Possession; as, Caesaris domus, the house of Cæsar.
 - (4.) Material; as, montes aurī, mountains of gold.
- 353. (1.) A genitive is called SUBJECTIVE when it denotes the subject of an action or feeling implied in the noun it limits, or indicates that to which a thing belongs.
 - (2.) It is called OBJECTIVE when it denotes the object

towards which the action or feeling implied in its noun is directed. Thus: —

SUBJECTIVE.

OBJECTIVE.

virōrum facta, deeds of men.
animī dolor, pain of spirit.
īra Iūnōnis, the wrath of Juno.

odium vitī, hatred of wrong.
virtūtis amor, love of virtue.
dēsīderium ōtī, a longing for
rest.

- a. Sometimes the same expression may serve as either a subjective or an objective genitive, and the context must show which is meant. Thus: Caesaris amor may mean somebody's love for Caesar, or Caesar's love for somebody else.
- b. To avoid ambiguity, or to secure greater emphasis, a preposition with its case is often used instead of the genitive; as, odium ergā Karthāginiēnsēs, hatred towards the Carthaginians.
- c. Two genitives are sometimes used with the same noun, one being usually subjective, the other objective. Thus:—

Prō veteribus Helvētiōrum iniūriīs populī Rōmānī, for the old wrongs of the Helvetians against the Roman people (Caes.); illīus administrātiō prōvinciae, his performance of the duties of his office (Cic.).

- d. The noun upon which a genitive depends is regularly omitted in certain idiomatic phrases; as, ad Diānae, near Diana's temple; sometimes in other expressions; as, ō miserae sortis! O ye of unhappy lot! solet mihi in mentem venīre illīus temporis, the thought of that time is wont to come into my mind.
- e. Especially is it omitted in expressions of comparison where in English "that of" is used. Thus:—

Numae rēgnum pācātius erat quam Rōmulī, Numa's reign was more peaceful than that of Romulus.

PARTITIVE GENITIVE.

- 354. A word denoting a PART is limited by the genitive of the whole whose part is taken. Thus: $m\bar{a}gnus$ hominum numerus, a large number of men.
- 355. The partitive genitive is especially common with —

- (1.) Numerals and nouns of number or quantity; as: Equitum centum quinquāgintā interfectī, a hundred and fifty horsemen [were] killed (Curtius); permāgnum pondus argentī, a very great weight of silver.
- (2.) Adverbs denoting quantity or amount (used as nouns); as:—

Satis ēloquentiae, parum sapientiae, enough eloquence, but too little wisdom.

(3.) Adverbs of place or direction; as:—

Ubi terrārum sumus? where in the world are we? quō āmentiae prōgressī estis, to what a pitch of madness have ye gone?

- a. The word of direction is generally, as in the example, used figuratively.
 - (4.) Comparatives and superlatives; as:—

Ōrātōrum praestantissimus, most famous of orators.

(5.) Neuter pronouns and adjectives, where in English the adjective agrees with the noun; as:—

 $Pl\bar{u}s$ $\bar{e}loquentiae$, more eloquence; tantum $fide\bar{i}$, so much honor; $h\bar{b}c$ $aet\bar{a}tis$, at this time of life.

- a. Like partitive genitives are the redundant genitives $adh\bar{u}c$ $loc\bar{o}rum$, till now (Plaut.); $poste\bar{a}\ loc\bar{\imath}$, afterwards (Sall.); $intere\bar{a}\ loc\bar{\imath}$, meanwhile (Ter.); etc.
- b. $Pr\bar{i}di\bar{e}$ and $postr\bar{i}di\bar{e}$ are followed by a genitive which seems to be partitive in its nature; as, $postr\bar{i}di\bar{e}$ $\bar{e}ius$ $di\bar{e}\bar{i}$, the day after that day (Caes.); $pr\bar{i}di\bar{e}$ $\bar{i}nsidi\bar{a}rum$, the day before the plot (Tac.).

GENITIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC OR QUALITY.

356. The genitive, with an adjective agreeing with it, is used to denote a property, quality, or characteristic. Thus:—

Adulēscēns summae audāciae, a youth of the utmost daring (Sall.); fossa pedum vīgintī, a ditch twenty feet wide (Caes.).

PREDICATE GENITIVE.

357. The genitive is often used in the predicate with sum and like verbs to denote the owner of something, or the person (or thing) whose duty, characteristic, or business a given thing is. Thus:—

Haec domus est Caesaris, this house is Caesar's; temerit \bar{a} s est florentis aetātis, $pr\bar{u}dentia$ senectūtis, rashness belongs to the bloom of life, discretion to old age (Cic.).

NOTE. The predicate genitive bears the same relation to the direct genitive which a predicate noun bears to an appositive.

KINDRED CONSTRUCTIONS.

- 358. Instead of the foregoing genitives the following constructions are sometimes used:—
- (1.) Instead of a subjective genitive an adjective is often used, either agreeing directly with the noun on which the genitive would depend, or serving as a predicate adjective. Thus:—

Amor patrius, a father's love; $n\bar{o}n$ est $ment\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}$ meum, it is not my habit to lie.

- a. An adjective less commonly takes the place of an objective genitive; as, metus hostīlis, fear of the enemy.
- (2.) Instead of the possessive genitive of a personal pronoun, the corresponding possessive pronoun is almost invariably used; as:—

Liber meus, my book; tuās lītterās exspectō, I await a letter from you. (Cf. also the second example under 1.)

- a. The possessive pronoun is also sometimes used for an objective genitive; as, mea *iniūria*, injury to me (Sallust).
- (3.) Instead of a possessive or objective genitive a dative of possession (see 384 below) is sometimes used. Thus:—

 $S\bar{e}$ tertium esse cui $f\bar{a}$ tum foret urbis pot $\bar{i}r\bar{i}$, [that] he was the third whose destiny it was to be master of the city (Cic.);

huic causae $patr\bar{o}nus\ exstit\bar{i}$, I have come forward as champion of [for] this cause (Cic., $R\bar{o}sc.\ Am.,\ 2,\ 5$).

(4.) Instead of a partitive genitive a partitive apposition (see 325, c, above) is used; as:—

Interfectores, pars in forum, pars Syrācūsās pergunt, some of the slayers proceed to the market place, others to Syracuse.

(5.) Sometimes also, instead of a partitive genitive, an ablative with ex or $d\bar{e}$, or in, or an accusative with inter, is used; as:

 $N\bar{e}m\bar{o}$ dē eīs, no one of them; acerrimus ex sēnsibus, the sharpest of the senses; $pr\bar{i}mus$ inter omnēs, first among all.

(6.) Instead of a genitive of characteristic an ablative of characteristic (see 411 below) is often used; as:—

Homŏ antīquā virtūte, a man of old-time virtue.

a. The genitive is used here in questions of number, measure, weight, time, space, kind, etc.; as:—

Filius annorum novem, a son nine years old; $cor\bar{o}na$ aurea parvī ponderis, a golden wreath of little weight; hūius modī $quaesti\bar{o}$, a question of this sort.

b. The ablative is used of physical and external characteristics; as:—

 $\bar{A}g\bar{e}sil\bar{a}us$ statūra fuit humilī et corpore exiguō, Agesilaus was of low stature and slight frame; $hom\bar{o}$ māximā barbā, a man with a very long beard; $fl\bar{u}men$ difficilī trānsitū rīpīsque praeruptīs, a river of difficult passage and steep banks.

c. Otherwise the two cases are used indifferently.

NOTE. For the idiomatic accusative, in a few expressions, instead of a genitive of characteristic, see 398, b, below. For the genitive with opus and usus, see 417, a, below.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

359. (1.) The genitive may be used to complete the meaning of certain adjectives.

- (2.) In classical Latin these are chiefly adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, participation, power, fullness, likeness, and their opposites.
- 360. The adjectives most commonly used with the genitive are—

avidus, greedy.
cupidus, eager.
studiōsus, zealous.
fāstīdiōsus, squeamish.
gnārus, knowing.
īgnārus, ignorant.
perītus, skilled.
imperītus, unskilled.
prūdēns, discreet.
imprūdēns, indiscreet.
prōvidus, foreseeing.
cōnscius, conscious of.
īnscius, ignorant.
rudis, untaught.

memor, mindful.
immemor, unmindful.
particeps, sharing in.
compos, having control over.
consors, partaking.
expers, having no part in.
inops, needy.
insuētus, unaccustomed.
insolēns, unaccustomed.
plēnus, full.
inānis, empty.
similis, like.
adfīnis, allied to.

Thus: —

Avidus laudis, eager for praise; memor virtūtis, mindful of valor; plēna timōris, full of fear; similis patris, like his father: etc.

a. Sallust and Livy began to use the genitive with adjectives more freely, and the Augustan poets spread the construction very widely; cf. integer vītae, pure of life (Hor.); incertus sententiae, unstable in opinion.

For animi, etc., with adjectives, see 426, b.

361. Participles in -ns from transitive verbs, when used as adjectives and thus denoting ENDURING qualities, often take a genitive, while in their participial use they take the accusative. Thus:—

Epamīnondas erat adeo vēritātis dīligēns ut nē ioco quidem mentīrētur, Epaminondas was so devoted to truth that he would not lie even in jest; semper adpetentēs gloriae

fuistis, you have always been eager for glory; but mare, terram adpetens, aiming at possession of the sea and land (on a given occasion).

Kindred Constructions.

- 362. Instead of a genitive, many of these adjectives sometimes take other constructions; as:—
 - (1.) An accusative with a preposition. Thus: —

 Avidus in dīreptiōnēs, greedy for expeditions of plunder (Livy).
 - (2.) An ablative with a preposition. Thus:—
 Perītus dē agrīcultūra, skilled in husbandry (Varro).
 - (3.) An ablative of specification (see 412). Thus:— Praestāns ingeniō, preëminent in natural endowment (Cic.).
 - (4.) A dative. Thus: —

Lupō similis, like a wolf.

a. Similis and dissimilis seem to be used by Cicero with the genitive usually in speaking of persons, with the dative always in speaking of things.

GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

- 363. The genitive is also used with several classes of verbs, as follows:—
- 364. (1.) Verbs denoting PITY as misereor and miseresco take the genitive. Thus:—

Miserēminī sociōrum, have pity for your allies (Cic.); miserēscite rēgis, pity the king (Verg.).

(2.) The impersonals miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, and taedet, take the genitive of the object towards which the feeling is exercised, and the accusative of the person who has the feeling. Thus:—

Mea māter, tuī mē miseret, meī piget, mother, I pity you and am disgusted with myself (Accius); eōs ineptiūrum paenitet, they repent of their follies (Cic.); mē cīvitātis

morum piget taedet que, I am disgusted and weary with the manners of the state (Sall.).

365. Verbs of REMEMBERING and FORGETTING — as memini, reminiscor, obliviscor — take the genitive. Thus:—

Meminī vīvorum, I remember the living (Cic.); reminiscī veteris fāmae, to bear in mind the old reputation (Nep.); iniūriārum oblīvīscor, I forget injuries (Nep.).

- a. One verb of pitying and one of remembering commonly take the accusative; namely, $miser\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ and $record\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ (both deponents of the first conjugation).
- b. Other verbs of these classes occasionally take the accusative, especially of a neuter pronoun.
- 366. Verbs of REMINDING and WARNING take a genitive of the thing with an accusative of the person. Thus:—

Admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis suae, he would remind one of his want of money, another of his pet passion (Sall.).

367. Verbs of ACCUSING, CONVICTING, CONDEMNING, and ACQUITTING, take a genitive of the crime or of the penalty. Thus:—

Miltiadēs accūsātus est prōditiōnis, Miltiades was accused of treachery; Cicerō Verrem avāritiae nimiae coarguit, Cicero accused Verres of excessive greed; iam mē ipse inertiae condemnō, I already condemn myself for my inactivity; Caelius iūdex absolvit iniūriārum eum, qui Lūcīlium laeserat, Caelius as juryman voted to acquit of wrong the man who had injured Lucilius.

a. The genitive is used to indicate the penalty when it is an indefinite sum of money as a fine. The genitives capitis, $pec\bar{u}$ niae, $capit\bar{a}lis$ poenae, $v\bar{o}t\bar{\imath}$, and some others, are also used in a sort of midway sense between charge and penalty. Thus:—

Quantī est damnātus, how much was he fined? capitis hominem innocentem condemnārunt, they condemned a guiltless man. to death (cf. Cic., $d\bar{e}$ $\bar{O}r$., i., 54, 233).

- b. The penalty is otherwise expressed by the ablative (always with *multāre* or when it is a *fixed* sum of money as a fine), or by *ad* or *in* with an accusative, and, in the poets, rarely by a dative.
- c. The verbs of the last two classes (366 and 367) sometimes take, instead of the genitive, an ablative with $d\bar{e}$ or the accusative of a neuter pronoun. Thus:—

Dē aede $Tell\bar{u}ris$ $m\bar{e}$ admonēs, you remind me about the temple of the Earth (Cic.); $e\bar{o}s$ hoc moneo, I warn them of this (Cic.); $acc\bar{u}s\bar{u}re$ $d\bar{e}$ $neglegenti\bar{u}$, to accuse of negligence (Cic.); $d\bar{e}$ $v\bar{v}$ $condemn\bar{u}t\bar{v}$ sunt, they were condemned for violence (Cic.); $s\bar{v}$ id $m\bar{e}$ $n\bar{o}n$ accūsās, if you do not accuse me of this (Plaut.).*

d. Some verbs of accusing, etc., take simply the accusative of the crime instead of the accusative of the person with the genitive of the crime. So especially $carp\bar{o}$, $culp\bar{o}$, $cr\bar{i}minor$, $p\bar{u}ni\bar{o}$, $reprehend\bar{o}$, and some less common verbs.

Interest and Refert.

368. The impersonal verbs interest and refert take a genitive of the person (or personified thing) whose interest they denote. Thus:—

Interest omnium rēctē facere, to do right is everybody's concern (Cic.).

Refert omnium animadverti in malos, all men are interested in having the bad punished (Tac.).

a. So far as there is a difference in the two verbs, $r\bar{e}fert$ applies rather to outside or material things, interest to matters of the mind or character. Cf. the examples.

NOTE. This genitive seems to have started with *interest* as a sort of predicative genitive of possession ($patris\ interest = it$ is among a father's possessions), and then to have been transferred to $r\bar{e}fert$ through the analogy in the meanings of the verbs.

- 369. Instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns,
- * With verbs of accusing, etc., the neuter pronoun in the accusative is mostly found in the dramatic poets.



the ablative singular feminine of the corresponding possessives is used. Thus:—

Tuā et meā $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$ interest, $t\bar{e}$ $val\bar{e}re$, it is very greatly for the interest of both you and myself that you should be well (Cic.); meā nihil rēfert, it is of no concern to me (Ter.).

a. The ablative feminine of the possessive pronoun is common with refert; the genitive construction is said to occur before Livy only in one instance in Sallust (Iug., 111) Cicero prefers interest to refert, and uses it with either construction indifferently.

Note. The origin of this ablative construction is still in dispute. It seems most probable that the construction started with refert as meā rē fert, equivalent to ē meā rē fert, it points in the direction of my interests, (cf. ē rē pūblicā est, it is in accordance with the interests of the state), and was then transferred to interest. But see J. H. Schmalz, in Handbuch der Altertumswiss., ii., 271.

b. Instead of the above constructions is sometimes found ad with an accusative, and very rarely a simple accusative or a dative. Thus:—

Ad honorem meum interest, it concerns my reputation (Cic.); quid to igitur rettulit, of what concern was that to you? (Plaut.)

- 370. (1.) The degree of interest is expressed by an adverb or the accusative singular neuter of an adjective (used adverbially), or, if there is no genitive of the person interested, by a genitive (of price; see 371).
- (2.) That which causes the interest is expressed by a clause as the subject of the verb or in apposition with a neuter pronoun which serves as subject. $R\bar{e}fert$ also sometimes takes a personal subject. Thus:—

Māximē interest, quem ad modum quaeque rēs audiātur, it makes the greatest difference, how each point is received; multum interest reī familiāris tuae, tē quam prīmum venīre, it is of much importance for your property that you come as soon as possible; quod permāgnī interest, prō necessāriō saepe habētur, what is of great advantage is often regarded as necessary.

For the genitive instead of an ablative with verbs of ceasing or freeing from, see 414; with verbs of plenty, see 409; with potior, see 419, b; for the locative animi with verbs of emotion, see 426, b.

GENITIVE OF PRICE.

371. The genitive is used to denote indefinite price or Thus: value.

Voluptātem virtūs minimī facit, virtue holds pleasure of very little value; $\bar{e}m\bar{i}$ hort $\bar{o}s$ tant \bar{i} , quant \bar{i} volu \bar{i} , I bought the grounds for the price I wished.

372. The genitives most commonly so used are —

tantī, so much. $\left(\begin{array}{c} perm\bar{a}gn\bar{\imath}, \\ pl\bar{u}rim\bar{\imath}, \\ m\bar{a}xim\bar{\imath}, \end{array}\right)$ at a very high quantī, as much, or how much? tantīdem, at the same price. plūris, more. mināris, less. quantīvīs,) however much quantīlubet. you please. minimī, very little. parvī, little. quantīcumque, at whatever $m\bar{a}gn\bar{i}$, at a high price. price. And rarely multi, much, and māioris, at a higher price.

a. In colloquial language also figuratively —

assis, worth an as. pilī, worth a hair. a bit of wool. $tlocc\bar{\imath}$. $p\bar{e}ns\bar{i}$, "weighing. naucī. " a trifle. teruncī, " a copper.

nihilī, " nothing.

And $h\bar{u}ius$ (indicating a gesture of disdain).

For the Ablative of Price, see 408.

DATIVE (Datīvus).

373. The DATIVE is used chiefly to indicate the person or thing indirectly concerned in the action of a verb, and for other similar relations.

Note. The uses of the dative may be summarized as follows: -

Dative of Indirect Object.

Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage. Dative of Service.

Ethical Dative.

Dative of Agent.

Dative of Possessor. Dative with Adjectives.

Dative with other Parts of Speech.

DATIVE OF INDIRECT OBJECT.

- 374. The dative expressing the INDIRECT OBJECT may be used
 - (1.) With intransitive verbs. Thus:—

Mea domus tib<u>i</u> patet, my house is open to you (Cic.); licet n<u>ē</u>min<u>i</u> contr<u>ā</u> patriam d<u>ā</u>cere exercitum, no one has a right to lead an army against his country (Cic.).

(2.) With transitive verbs in addition to the direct object. Thus: —

Hốc tibi promuto, I promise you this (Cic.); mihi responsum dedit, he gave me the answer (Verg.).

- 375. Several classes of verbs which seem transitive in English are intransitive in Latin, and therefore take their object in the dative.
- 376. Such are most verbs meaning to FAVOR, PLEASE, TRUST, BELIEVE, HELP, and their opposites; also to COMMAND, OBEY, SERVE, RESIST, ENVY, THREATEN, SPARE, PARDON, BE ANGRY, etc. Thus:—

Illa tibǐ favet, she favors you (Ovid); mihǐ placēbat $Pomp\bar{o}nius$, Pomponius pleased me (Cic.); $qu\bar{\imath}$ sibǐ fīdit, he who trusts in himself (Hor.); $ini\bar{u}r\bar{u}t\bar{o}$, $sci\bar{o}$, $pl\bar{u}s$ mihǐ crēdet quam $i\bar{u}r\bar{u}t\bar{o}$ tibǐ, he will, I know, trust me without an oath more than you upon oath (Plaut., Am., i., 1, 281); $n\bar{o}n$ licet $su\bar{\imath}$ commodī causā nocēre alterī, it is not lawful to injure one's neighbor for one's own advantage (Cic.): imperat aut servit collēcta pecūnia cuique, gathered gold commands or serves its possessor (lit., each one) (Hor.); quoniam factiōnī inimīcōrum resistere nequīverit, since he could not withstand the faction of his enemies (Sall.); $n\bar{o}n$ invidētūr illī aetātī, that time of life is not exposed to envy (Cic.); mih $min\bar{u}b\bar{u}tur$, he threatened me (Cic.); bonīs nocet quisquis parcit malīs, he wrongs the good who spares the wicked; $\bar{\imath}r\bar{u}sc\bar{\imath}$ $inim\bar{\imath}c\bar{\imath}s$, to be angry against one's enemies (Caes.).

a. Iuvō, help, and its compounds; laedō, injure; dēlectō,

oblectō, delight, and sometimes other verbs of these meanings, are treated as transitives and take the accusative. Thus:

Caesar ad Lingonīs lītterās nūntiōsque mīsit, nē eōs frūmentō nēve aliā rē iuvārent, Caesar sent a letter and messages to the Lingones [bidding them] not to aid them with grain or anything else (Caes., B. G., i., 26); hīc pulvis oculum meum laedit, this dust hurts my eye.

377. (1.) Verbs compounded with the prepositions ad, ante, com, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super, commonly have intransitive meanings, and therefore take a dative of indirect object. Thus:—

Neque enim ādsentior iīs, for I do not agree with those (Cic., Am., 4, 13); quantum $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}ra$ hominis pecudibus antecēdit, as much as man's nature has the advantage over the brutes (Cic., Off., i., 30, 105); omnibus negōtiīs $n\bar{o}n$ interfuit $s\bar{o}lum$ sed praefuit, he not only took part in, but presided over, all the transactions (Cic., Fam., i., 6); nec umquam succumbet inimīcīs, nor will he ever yield to his foes (Cic., $D\bar{e}iot.$, 13, 36).

(2.) But not infrequently they are transitive, and then take (like any transitive verb) a direct object in the accusative, with or without the dative of indirect object. Thus:—

Convocat $m\bar{\imath}lit\bar{e}s$, he calls together the soldiers; $m\bar{u}nus$ ob $\bar{\imath}re$, to perform a duty (Cic., Am., 27); illum praef $\bar{e}cit$ exercitu $\bar{\imath}$, he set him over the army.

(3.) Sometimes they are used to denote relations of PLACE, and then they take a preposition with its case instead of the dative.* Thus:—

Inferre $s\bar{\imath}gna$ in hostes, to march against the enemy; adesse in $sen\bar{a}t\bar{u}$, to be at a meeting of the senate.

378. Several verbs take the dative in one sense, the accusative in another. Thus, especially:—

*This is especially common with words compounded with ad or in. When used figuratively all these words usually take the dative (or, if transitive, the accusative; as, subire pericula, to undergo danger).



WITH DATIVE.

metuere,) fear, be anxious, for timēre. somebody or some-

thing.

consulere. take counsel for.

prōspicere,) providere,

provide for.

cavēre, take care for, guard. $moder\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, control.

temperāre, restrain.

WITH ACCUSATIVE.

be afraid of somebody or something.

ask advice of, consult.

foresee.

guard against. regulate, arrange. temper (by mixing).

379. $D\bar{o}n\bar{o}$, present, $circumd\bar{o}$, surround, and adspergo, sprinkle or scatter upon, take either a dative of the person with an accusative of the thing, or an accusative of the person with an ablative of the thing. Thus: -

Mihī librum $d\bar{o}n\bar{a}vit$, he presented a book to me; mē librō $d\bar{o}n\bar{a}vit$, he presented me with a book.

Urbī mūrum circumdat, he puts a wall round the city; urbem mūrō circumdat, he surrounds the city with a wall.

Ārae sanguinem adspergit, he sprinkles blood upon the altar; aram sanguine adspergit, he sprinkles the altar with blood.

380. Many verbs compounded with ab, $d\bar{e}$, ex, $pr\bar{o}$, or circum, and the verb ademo, take a dative where an ablative of separation (see 413) might be expected. Thus:—

Bona mihi extorsisti. you have wrung my goods from me; mulierī ānulum dētrāxit, he took the ring from the woman (i. e., her finger); id mihi tū, C. Verrēs, ēripuistī atque abstulistī, this you have robbed me of and taken from me, Gaius Verres (Cic., in Caecil., 5, 19).

- a. The dative is always used of persons and sometimes of The action is thus regarded as something done to the things. object.
- b. But with things the ablative with or without a preposition is perhaps more common, especially if an idea of place is involved. Thus: --

Illum ē perīculō ēripuit, he snatched him from the danger (Caes., B. G., iv., 12).

Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage (Datīvus commodī vel incommodī).

381. With many verbs the dative denotes the person or thing to whose advantage or disadvantage something is done. Thus:—

 $N\bar{o}n$ scholae sed vītae dīscimus, we learn, not for school, but for life; $n\bar{o}n$ $s\bar{o}lum$ n \bar{o} bīs $d\bar{v}vit\bar{e}s$ esse volumus, sed līberīs, propīnquīs, amīcīs $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}que$ reī pūblicae, not for ourselves only do we wish to be rich, but for our children, relatives, friends, and, most of all, for the state.

- a. So nūbere alicui, marry (lit., veil one's self for), vacūre alicui reī, have leisure for, and expressions like quid tibi vis? what are you after? (lit. what do you want for yourself?); quid huic hominī faciās? what can you do with (for) this fellow? (But cf. 412, a.)
- b. So also the dative of a participle in expressions defining a place, as:—

Locum, quī nunc saeptus dēscendentibus inter duōs lūcōs est, asylum aperit, he opened as a place of refuge the spot which you find hedged in as you go down between the Two Groves (Līv., i., 8, 5).

ETHICAL DATIVE (Datīvus ēthicus).

382. A special variety of the dative of advantage is the use of a personal pronoun in lively style to indicate the person interested, where the sense strictly requires no such pronoun. Thus:—

Utinam ille omnēs sēcum suās cōpiās ēdūxisset! Tongilium mihi ēdūxit, would that he had taken out all his forces with him! He has taken (me) Tongilius (Cic., Cat., ii., 2, 4); at tibi repente paucīs post diēbus venit ad mē Canīnius, but a few days later Caninius suddenly comes to me (Cic., Fam., ix., 2, 1).

DATIVE OF AGENT (Datīvus agentis).

383. With the gerundive and sum the dative denotes the person who has a thing to do. Thus:—

Adhibenda est nobīs $d\bar{\imath}ligentia$, we must employ diligence (Cic.); certē mihi verendum $n\bar{\imath}n$ erat, $n\bar{\imath}e$ quid, $h\bar{\imath}c$ parric $\bar{\imath}d\bar{a}$ c $\bar{\imath}vium$ interfect $\bar{\imath}e$, invidiae mihi in posterit $\bar{\imath}a$ tem redund $\bar{\imath}e$ ret, I certainly did not have to fear that if I killed this murderer of his countrymen, any flood of unpopularity would rise up about me in the future (Cic., Cat., i., 12, 29); nob $\bar{\imath}$ s, cum semel occidit brevis $l\bar{\imath}x$, nox est perpetua $\bar{\imath}$ na dormienda, we have to sleep through one long lasting night, when once our life's brief day is o'er (Catull.).

a. To avoid a possible ambiguity, or to give the notion of agency greater prominence, the ablative with ab (\bar{a}) must be used; as:—

Aguntur bona $c\bar{v}vium$, quibus est \bar{a} v \bar{o} bīs c \bar{o} nsulendum, citizens' property is involved, and you must take measures for its protection; $t\bar{e}$ \bar{a} m \bar{e} monendum esse $put\bar{o}$, I think I ought to remind you.

b. The dative of agent is also sometimes used with the tenses compounded with the perfect participle. Thus:—

Haec satis sint dicta nobis, let that which I have said suffice (Cic., Tim., 10).

DATIVE OF POSSESSOR.

384. The dative is used with sum to denote the POS-SESSOR,* — the thing owned being the subject of the verb. Thus:—

Sit mihī mēnsa tripēs, let me have a three-legged table (Hor., Sat., i., 3, 13); est igitur hominī cum deō similitūdō, man has therefore a likeness with God (Cic., Lēgg., i., 8, 25).

a. The historians sometimes join volenti, cupienti, or invito, with such a dative, in imitation of a Greek idiom; as:—

*Cf. predicate genitive of possession, 357.

Ut quibusque bellum invītīs aut cupientibus erat, according as war was repugnant or acceptable to each.

DATIVE OF SERVICE.

385. With many verbs the dative denotes the END or PURPOSE of an action. Thus:—

Virtūs neque datur dōnō neque accipitur, virtue is neither given as a gift nor received.

386. The dative of service is most commonly joined with another dative, especially a dative of advantage or a dative of possessor (dative to which and for which). Thus:—

Id tibī honōrī, habētur, that is counted an honor to you (Cic.); mihī māximae est cūrae, it is a very great anxiety to me (Cic.); spērō nōbīs hanc coniūnctiōnem voluptātī fore, I hope this association will be a pleasure to us (Cic.); cui bonō fuit, whom did it benefit? (lit., to whom was it (for) a benefit?) (Cic.). (Cf. 331, 1.)

IMPERSONAL USE OF PASSIVES.

387. Verbs which take a dative can be used in the passive only impersonally, and the dative is then retained. Thus:—

Mihi numquam persuādērī potuit animos ēmorī, I never could be persuaded that the soul perishes; invidētur praestantī florentīque fortūnae, prominent and flourishing success is envied.

DATIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

- 388. The dative is used with many adjectives to denote the object towards which the quality is directed.
- 389. Such are especially adjectives meaning USEFUL, PLEASANT, FRIENDLY, FIT, LIKE, INCLINED, READY, EASY, CLEAR, EQUAL, and their opposites; also those meaning



NEAR, many compounded with com-, and adjectives in -bilis. Thus:—

Fēlīx tuīs, gracious to your adherents (Verg.); $\bar{o}r\bar{u}ti\bar{o}$ ingrāta Gallīs, a speech unpleasing to the Gauls (Caes.); nihil tam est Lysiae dīversum quam $\bar{I}socrat\bar{e}s$, nothing is so different from Lysias as Isocrates; $patr\bar{i}$ similis, like his father (Cic.); $pr\bar{o}mptus$ sēdition \bar{i} , ready for insurrection (Tac.); cuivīs facile est, it is easy for anybody (Ter.); falsa vērīs fīnitima sunt, the false is next door to the true (Cic.); mors est terribilis \bar{i} is, $qu\bar{o}rum$ cum $v\bar{i}t\bar{u}$ omnia exstinguuntur, death is terrible to those who lose all things when they lose their life (Cic., Par., \bar{i} i.).

- 390. Instead of the dative, many of these adjectives are also used with a preposition and its case. Especially:—
- (1.) Adjectives meaning USEFUL or FIT, and their opposites, take an accusative with ad when they mean useful for, fit for, etc., the dative being commoner if they mean useful to, etc. Thus:—

 $\bar{U}tilis~agr\bar{u}s$, beneficial to the fields (Juv.); homo ad nullam rem utilis, a man useful for nothing (Cic.).

(2.) Adjectives implying motion or tendency more commonly take the accusative with a preposition. Thus:—

Pronus ad fidem, readily inclined to faithfulness (Liv.).

(3.) Adjectives of FEELING often have an accusative with $in, erg\bar{a}$, or adversus. Thus:—

 $M\bar{u}ter$ acerba in suōs partūs, a mother harsh to her own offspring (Ovid); $gr\bar{u}tus$ $erg\bar{u}$ $m\bar{e}$, grateful towards me (Cic.); $gr\bar{u}tum$ adversus $t\bar{e}$, grateful towards you (Cic.).

(4.) Propior and proximus sometimes take an accusative, like the primitive prope. Thus:—

Quod vitium propius virtūtem erat, and this fault was pretty nearly a virtue (Sall.); P. Crassus proximus mare Ōceanum hiemārat, Publius Crassus had wintered close by the ocean (Caes., B. G., iii., 7).

Cf. also 362.

DATIVE WITH OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH.

- 391. The dative is sometimes found with other parts of speech, to express the same sort of relation as with verbs or adjectives. Thus:—
 - (1.) With adverbs:

Congruenter nātūrae convenienterque vīvere, to live in harmony and agreement with nature (Cic.); proximē castrīs, next the camp (Caes., B. C., i., 72, 5).

(2.) With a few (verbal) nouns: —

Obtemperātiō lēgibus, obedience to the laws (Cic., Lēgg., i., 15); invidia cōnsulī, envy towards the consul (Sall.).

(3.) With interjections: -

Vae victīs! no quarter! (lit., woe to the vanquished); hei mihī miserō! alas! unhappy me!

(4.) The compound expression dictō audiēns, obedient, takes a second dative, as:—

Dicto audientes esse regi $d\bar{e}b\bar{e}bant$, they ought to be obedient to their king.

ACCUSATIVE (Accūsātīvus).

Note. The uses of the accusative may be summarized as follows:—

Accusative of Direct Object.

Two Accusatives (Verbs of Making, etc.
" 'Asking, etc.
" compounded with Trāns, etc.

Accusative with Middle Voice.

Cognate Accusative.

Adverbial Accusative.

Accusative of Specification (Synecdochical).

Accusative with Verbal Nouns.

Accusative in Exclamations.

Subject Accusative.

Accusative of Time.

" Place.

with Prepositions.

ACCUSATIVE OF DIRECT OBJECT.

392. The accusative is used especially to denote the person or thing *directly* affected by an action. Therefore only transitive verbs have an object in the accusative. Thus:—

 $L\bar{e}g\bar{a}t\bar{o}s$ $m\bar{t}ttunt$, they send ambassadors (Caes.); animus movet corpus, the mind moves the body (Cic.); $d\bar{a}$ venian hanc, grant this indulgence (Ter.).

NOTE. Many verbs are transitive in Latin which are intransitive in English. Indeed, in early Latin very many verbs which were afterwards used with other constructions could take an accusative, the accusative filling with regard to the verb the same place which a genitive fills towards the noun it modifies.

393. The accusative of the active voice becomes the subject-nominative of the passive voice. Thus:—

Lēgātōs mīttunt ; lēgātī mīttuntur.

- a. Verbs therefore which admit no accusative can be used in the passive only impersonally. (Cf. 387, and 194.)
- b. Occasionally the subject of a dependent clause is anticipated in the main clause as the object of its verb, though this is much less common than in Greek. Thus:—

Meam uxōrem . . . nēscīs, qualis sit, you don't know what sort of a person my wife is (Plaut., Asin., 59).

NOTE. The anticipated subject is sometimes in other constructions than that of object-accusative; as:—

Quīdam saepe in parvā pecūniā perspiciuntur quam sint $lev\bar{e}s$, it is often shown in small matters of money what weak characters some people have (Cic., Am., 17, 63).

Two Accusatives.

- 394. Certain classes of verbs take two accusatives. Thus:—
- (1.) Many verbs which in the passive voice take a predicate nominative (cf. 328, 3), especially verbs meaning to MAKE, CALL, CHOOSE, RENDER, ESTEEM, RECKON. Thus:—

Mē consulem fēcistis, you have made me consul (Cic.);

īram bene Ennius initium dīxit $\bar{\imath}ns\bar{a}niae$, Ennius has well called anger the beginning of madness (Cic.); Sulpicium accūsātōrem suum numerābat $n\bar{o}n$ competītōrem, he reckoned Sulpicius his accuser, not his rival (Cic., $M\bar{u}r.$, 24, 49).

- a. One accusative is the direct object, the other a predicate accusative.
- b. Instead of the *predicate accusative* the same "kindred constructions" sometimes occur as for a predicate nominative (see 331 above). Cf. also the following:—

Fortuna $m\bar{e}$, $qu\bar{\imath}$ liber fueram, servom $f\bar{e}cit$, \bar{e} summo infimum, fortune has made me who was free a slave, [changing me] from the highest to the lowest (Plaut.).

(2.) Verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and $c\bar{e}l\bar{a}re$, to hide, take an accusative of the person with another accusative of the thing. Thus:—

Hốc tō vehementer rogō, this I ask you urgently (Cic.); pōsce deōs veniam,* ask indulgence of the gods (Verg.); cum legent quis mūsicam docuerit Epamīnōndam, when they read who taught Epaminondas music (Nep.); Antigonus iter omnēs cēlat, Antigonus hides his journey from all (Nep.).

a. The following verbs of asking (and occasionally others) take an ablative with ab, $d\bar{e}$, or ex, instead of the accusative of the person: exigere, petere, $p\bar{o}stul\bar{a}re$, (ab); quaerere, (ex or de); $sc\bar{t}t\bar{a}r\bar{t}$, $sc\bar{t}scit\bar{a}r\bar{t}$. Thus:—

 $P\bar{a}cem$ ab Rōmānīs petere, to ask peace of the Romans (Caes.).

b. Instead of the accusative of the thing, an ablative with $d\bar{e}$, or with verbs of teaching an ablative of means (see 407, b), is sometimes used. Thus:—

Sīc egŏ tē eīsdem dē rēbus interrogem, I would thus question you on the same points (Cic.); dē itinere hostium senātum ēdocet, he informs the senate of the enemy's march (Sall.); Bassus noster mē dē hōc librō cēlāvit, my friend Bassus

* The difference in sense between the two accusatives here and in expressions like filiam tuam mihi uxōrem pōscō, I ask your daughter as wife, should be observed.

kept me in ignorance about this book (Cic.); aliquem fidibus docēre, to teach some one [to play on] the lyre (Cic.).

c. In the passive the accusative of the person becomes subject and the accusative of the thing remains; as:—

Rogātus est sententiam, he was asked his opinion.

(3.) Verbs compounded with $tr\bar{a}ns$, ad, or circum sometimes take two accusatives, one depending upon the verb, the other upon the preposition. Thus:—

Omnem equitātum pontem trānsdūcit, he led all his cavalry across the bridge (Caes.); Petrēius iūs iūrandum adigit Āfrānium, Petreius bound Afranius by an oath (Caes.); Rōscillum Pompēius omnia sua praesidia circumdūxit, Pompey took Roscillus all around his garrisons (Caes.).

ACCUSATIVE WITH MIDDLE VOICE. Sure (LCC.)

395. A few verbs, seemingly deponent or passive but really remnants of a middle voice (see 193, a), take an accusative of direct object. Thus:—

Priamus inūtile ferrum cingitur, Priam girds on his unavailing sword (Verg.); $virid\bar{\imath}$ membra sub $arbut\bar{\imath}$ strātus, stretching his limbs under a green arbutus tree (Hor., Odes, i., 1).

 α . This construction is especially common with certain perfect participles, as in the second example.

COGNATE ACCUSATIVE.

396. Some verbs not otherwise transitive take, as in English, an accusative with a meaning kindred to their own (Cognate Accusative). Thus:—

Vītam *iūcundam* vīvere, to live a merry life (Plaut.); iūrāvī *vērissimum* iūs iūrandum, I have sworn an inviolable oath (Cic.).

- a. The cognate accusative usually has an adjective agreeing with it, as in the examples.
- b. The degree in which the meanings of the verb and the accusative are kindred varies a good deal. In the poets the con-

struction became pretty widely expanded. Cf. the following examples: —

Coire societatem, to form an alliance (Cic., $R\bar{o}sc.$ Am., 7, 20); vincere $i\bar{u}dicium$,* to win a suit; saltare Cyclopa, to dance the Cyclops (Hor., Sat., i., 5, 63); bacchānālia vīvere, to live a riotous life (Iuv., ii., 3).

ADVERBIAL ACCUSATIVE.

397. The adverbial use of the accusative to denote in what respect or to what degree an action is exerted, is really a variety of cognate accusative. Thus:—

Nihil $lab\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, I have no difficulty; illud $vald\bar{e}$ $tib\bar{t}$ adsentior, on that point I agree with you emphatically (Cic.); $Su\bar{e}b\bar{v}$ maximam partem lacte atque pecore $v\bar{v}vunt$, the Suebi live for the most part on milk and meat.

ACCUSATIVE OF SPECIFICATION.

398. The accusative is sometimes used to specify the part to which the meaning of a verb or an adjective applies. Thus:—

Equus tremit artūs, the horse trembles in his limbs (Verg.); $cl\bar{u}r\bar{\iota}$ genus, illustrious in birth (Tac.); animum $inc\bar{e}nsus$, fired in his soul (Līv.).

- a. This construction is also called the SYNECDOCHICAL accusative. It is rare except in the poets, and is chiefly confined to the parts of the body. The use treated under 395 is often wrongly regarded as accusative of specification.
- b. Here belongs perhaps the idiomatic use of the accusative in such expressions as:—

Scīs mē aliquid id genus solitum scrībere, you know I am in the habit of writing something of the sort; id aetātis, of or at that age; id temporis, at that time.

ACCUSATIVE WITH VERBAL NOUNS, ETC.

399. Some verbal nouns and verbal adjectives in

* This is a direct imitation of the Greek.



-bundus take an accusative, like the transitive verbs from which they are derived. Thus:—

Quid tibǐ hūc receptiō ad tē est meum virum, wherefore do you receive my husband hither to you? (Plaut.); Hannō vītābundus castra hostium cōnsulēsque, Hanno shunning the consuls and the camp of the enemy (Līv.).

a. This use is chiefly confined to colloquial and late Latin.

ACCUSATIVE IN EXCLAMATIONS.

400. In exclamations the noun or pronoun which marks the object of the feeling is put in the accusative, with or without an interjection. Thus:—

Hominem gravem et cīvem ēgregium! a solid man and admirable citizen (Cic.); miseram mē (Ter.); prō deūm hominumque fidem, by the honor of gods and men (Cic.); ēn quattuor ārās, lo four altars! (Verg.).

SUBJECT ACCUSATIVE.

401. The subject of an infinitive is put in the accusative. Thus:—

Molestē Pompēium id ferre constābat, it was believed that Pompey took that to heart (Cic.); campos iubet esse patentēs, orders that the fields be open (Verg.).

For the subject of the Historical Infinitive see 530, a.

For the accusative with propier and proximus, see 390, 4.

For the accusative with prepositions, see 429, 431.

For the accusative in constructions of Place and Time, see 423, 425 ff.

VOCATIVE (Vocātīvus).

402. The **VOCATIVE** is used only to *address* a person or thing. Thus:—

Vincere scīs, Hannibal, victōria ūtī nēscīs, you know how to conquer, Hannibal, but you know not how to make use of victory; Quīntilī Vāre, legiōnēs redde, Quintilius Varus, give back [my] legions; ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtū-

tis Homērum praeconem invēneris! O happy youth, who hast found a herald of thy valor in Homer! (Cic., Arch., 10, 24).

- a. The interjection \bar{o} / is used in prose only for deeply emotional address, as in the last example.
- b. Other interjections are sometimes used, especially $pr\bar{o}$! in calling upon the gods. Thus:—

Pro sancte Iuppiter! O holy Jupiter!

c. A predicate word is sometimes in the Augustan poets made to agree with a vocative instead of the nominative. Thus:—

Quibus, Hector, ab ōrīs, exspectāte venīs, from what shores, Hector, dost thou, long looked for, come? (Verg., Ae., ii., 282).

NOTE. Properly speaking, the vocative is hardly a case at all. The similarity of its function with that of the nominative, both serving to name an object, accounts for the identity of form which, except in the singular of masculine and feminine O- stems with nominatives in -us, is everywhere shown by the two cases. (See 90, 3.)

ABLATIVE (Ablātīvus).

403. The ABLATIVE may be called the *adverbial* case, that is, it expresses various modifications of the predicate which in English are expressed by adverbs or by prepositional phrases.* It is therefore used chiefly with verbs and adjectives.

NOTE. To a still greater degree than with the other oblique cases is it difficult to trace any single principle in the various uses of the ablative. It has been a common theory that the original use was to denote separation, but the better opinion is that such is not the case. In the following arrangement each of the first two groups contains uses which seem pretty nearly allied to each other, though it will be observed that the last member of the first group (ablative of plenty) might just as well be reckoned in the second group. The special uses comprising group 3 can all be traced to individual uses under groups 1 and 2. The last group contains those uses in which it is most difficult to trace any bond of connection.

* The ablative had absorbed into itself the uses of the old instrumental and most of those of the locative. We have seen (90, note) that some of its forms are derived from these cases. The other uses of the locative passed over to the genitive or the dative.



USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

1. Ablative of Cause.

Source.

Agent.

Means or Instrument.

Way by which.

Price.

Plenty.

Manner or Accompaniment.

Characteristic or Quality.

2. Ablative of Specification.

Separation.

Want.

Degree of Difference.

With Comparatives.

3. Ablative in certain special expressions

Dignus, etc.

Utor, Fruor, etc.

Nitor, etc.

Adsuēscō, etc.

4. Ablative Absolute.

of Time.

" Place.

with Prepositions.

ABLATIVE OF CAUSE (Ablātīvus causae).

Opus and Usus.

- 404. The ablative indicates the CAUSE of a thing in the widest sense. It thus indicates
 - (1.) An external cause; as:—

Hostes frümenti inopia conloquium petiverunt, the enemy asked for a conference, on account of their want of grain.

(2.) An internal cause; as: —

 $N\bar{v}l\bar{v}$ putare pigritia $m\bar{e}$ id facere, do not think that I do so from laziness.

(3.) That in consequence of which or in accordance with which something takes place; as:—

Dīversīs duōbus vitiīs, avāritiā et lūxuriā, cīvitās Rōmāna labōrābat, the Roman state was suffering from two opposite defects, greed and extravagance; amīcī amīcōrum dolōre

maerent, friends are saddened by each other's pain; Institūtō suō Caesar cōpiās suās ēdūxit, Caesar led out his forces in accordance with his custom; tanta cāritās patriae est, ut eam $n\bar{o}n$ sēnsū nostrō sed salūte ipsīus $m\bar{e}ti\bar{a}mur$, so great is our love of country that we measure it not by our feeling, but by her own welfare (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 37); $m\bar{e}lit\bar{e}s$ fessī labōre, dux anxius cūrīs, the soldiers worn out with hardship; the general troubled with his cares.

- a. Cause is also sometimes expressed by prepositions; as;— $L\bar{e}gibus$ propter metum $p\bar{a}ret$, he obeys the laws because of fear; $n\bar{e}$ ob ear rem $ips\bar{o}s$ $d\bar{e}spiceret$, [they begged] him not to despise them on that account.
- b. The ablatives $caus\bar{a}$ and $gr\bar{a}ti\bar{a}$ (sometimes also $erg\bar{o}$) are used with a genitive or a possessive pronoun to denote "for the sake of;" as:—

Et meā et reī pūblicae causā, for my sake and that of the state.

c. Words of emotion, etc., also sometimes take the ablative with $d\bar{e}$, ex, \bar{a} , $\bar{\imath}n$; as:—

 $Laet\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ victōriā (or in victōriā), to be glad at one's victory; $gl\bar{o}ri\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ dē (or in) suīs dīvitiīs, to beast of one's wealth; $lab\bar{o}r\bar{a}re$ ex aere aliēnō, ab rē frūmentāriā, to suffer under debt, from want of provisions.

ABLATIVE OF SOURCE.

405. The ablative is used, chiefly with perfect participles, to denote BIRTH or ORIGIN. Thus:—

Tantalō prōgnātus, descended from Tantalus; eōdem patre nātus, born of the same father.

a. With the name of the mother and with pronouns the preposition ex is generally used, except in the poets; with distant ancestors the preposition ab. Thus:—

Ex rēgis fīliā nātus, born of the king's daughter; bēstiae quoque ex sē nātōs amant, even the brutes love their offspring; Belgae ortī sunt ab Germānīs, the Belgians are descended from the Germans.

b. Locō, genere, familiā, generally take no preposition; as:— Summō locō nātus, born in the highest station.

For the construction with places, see 425, 426.

c. With constare and like words the ablative is used alone to denote MATERIAL. Thus:—

Animō constamus et corpore, we consist of mind and body (cf. Cic., Fin., iv., 8, 19).

Note. Otherwise a preposition is used, except sometimes in verse.

ABLATIVE OF AGENT (Ablātīvus agentis).

406. The ablative of persons or personified things is used with the preposition \bar{a} , ab, to denote the AGENT. Thus:—

 $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ Clōdiō $d\bar{\imath}ligor$, I am loved by Clodius; $laud\bar{a}tur$ ab $h\bar{\imath}s$ $culp\bar{a}tur$ ab ill $\bar{\imath}s$, by the one set he is praised, by the other blamed (Hor.).

So, perīre ab hoste, to be slain by the enemy.

For Dative of Agent, see 383.

ABLATIVE OF MEANS (Ablātīvus īnstrūmentī).

407. The ablative of things is used without a preposition to denote the MEANS or INSTRUMENT of an action. Thus:—

Cornibus $taur\bar{\imath}$, $apr\bar{\imath}$ dentibus, morsū $le\bar{o}n\bar{e}s$, aliae $b\bar{e}stiae$ fugā $s\bar{e}$, aliae occultātione $t\bar{u}tantur$, bulls protect themselves by their horns, boars by their tusks, lions by biting, some beasts by running away, others by hiding; $Britann\bar{\imath}$ interior $\bar{e}s$ lacte et carne $v\bar{\imath}v\bar{e}bant$ pellibusque erant $vest\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$, the Britons of the interior used to live on milk and meat, and had skins for clothing.

a. A person regarded as a means is denoted by per with the accusative; as:—

Multī per Caesarem aut honōrēs aut dīvitiās cēpērunt, many received office or wealth at Caesar's hands.

b. Various verbs which in English are used transitively are in Latin construed with an ablative of means. Thus especially words meaning "to play" (either games or music), and sometimes verbs of teaching (see also 394, 2, b). Thus:—

 $L\bar{u}dere\ pil\bar{a}$, to play tennis; * canere $t\bar{\imath}bi\bar{\imath}s$, to play the flute; artibus $\bar{\imath}nstruere$, to teach the arts; $l\bar{\imath}tter\bar{\imath}s$ imbuere, to instil learning.

c. The ablative of means may be used to denote the road or path taken (sometimes called ablative of the way by which). Thus:—

Omnibus viīs $n\bar{o}t\bar{\iota}s$ semitīs que essed $\bar{a}ri\bar{o}s$ ex $silv\bar{\iota}s$ $\bar{e}m\bar{\iota}tt\bar{e}bat$, he was sending out warriors in chariots from the woods by all the known roads and paths (Caes., B. G., v., 19).

ABLATIVE OF PRICE (Ablātīvus pretiī).

408. The PRICE † or VALUE of a thing is expressed by the ablative, chiefly when it is a definite quantity. Thus:—

Cum tē trecentīs talentīs rēgī Cottō vēndidissēs, when you had sold yourself to king Cottus for three hundred talents (Cic.); cōnstitit quadringentīs mīlibus, it cost four hundred thousand [sesterces] (Varr.); levī mōmentō aestimāre, to esteem it of little consequence (Caes.).

For the genitive of indefinite price, see 371, 372.

- a. Māgnō, permāgnō, parvō, minimō, plūrimō, nihilō, though denoting indefinite value, are used as ablatives of price.
- b. Mūtāre and its compounds take either the accusative of the thing given with the ablative of the thing received in exchange, or vice versa, but the context always prevents ambiguity. Thus:—

Chāoniam glandem pīnguī mūtāvit aristā, changed the Chaonian acorn for rich grain (Verg.); cūr valle permūtem Sabīnā dīvitiās operōsiōrēs, why should I exchange my Sabine vale for more burdensome riches? (Hor., Odes, iii., 1, 47).

Sometimes cum is used with the ablative; as: —

Mortem cum vītā commūtāre, to exchange life for death (Sulp., ad Cic.).

- * We can also say, of course, in English, "to play at tennis," "to play on the flute," etc.
 - † That is, the means by which something is bought or sold.



ABLATIVE OF PLENTY (Ablātīvus copiae).

409. The ablative (of means) is used with verbs and adjectives which denote FULLNESS or ABUNDANCE. Thus:—

[Vīlla] abundat porcō, haedō, āgnō, gallīnā, lacte, cāseō, melle, the farmhouse is plentifully provided with ham, venison, lamb, poultry, milk, cheese, and honey (Cic., Sen., 16, 56); domus plēna servīs, a house full of slaves (Iuv.).

a. Sometimes, by a Greek idiom, such words take a genitive in the poets; compleo, impleo, and plenus, also in prose; as:—
Ollam denariorum implere, to fill a jar with pennies (Cic.).
(Cf. 359 and 360.)

ABLATIVE OF MANNER (Ablātīvus modī).

410. (1.) The ablative is used with the preposition cum to denote MANNER or ACCOMPANIMENT. Thus:—

Cum voluptāte aliquem audīre, to listen to one with pleasure; Verrēs Lampsacum vēnit cum māgnā calamitāte cīvitātis, Verres came to Lampsacus with great disaster to the city (Cic.).

(2.) The preposition is often omitted when there is an adjective agreeing with the ablative, and with a few particular words, — modō, ratiōne, mōre, rītū, silentiō, iūre, iniūriā, etc. Thus: —

Nūdīs pedibus *incēdere*, to go barefoot; summā aequitāte *rēs cēnstituit*, he arranged affairs with the greatest fairness; *latrēnum* rītū *vīvere*, to live after the fashion of brigands; silentiē *praeterīre aliquid*, to pass by something in silence.

ABLATIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC (Ablātīvus quālitātis).

411. The ablative is used, with an adjective agreeing with it or a genitive depending on it, to denote a CHARACTERISTIC or QUALITY. Thus:—

Agēsilāus statūrā fuit humilī et corpore exiguo. Agesi-

laus was of short stature and small frame; homő māximā barbā, a man with very long beard; flūmen difficilī trānsitū rīpīsque praeruptīs, a river of difficult passage and steep banks; clāvus ferreus digitī pollicis crassitūdine, an iron nail of the thickness of the thumb.

a. Physical characteristics are always expressed thus by the ablative; other qualities may also be expressed by a genitive of characteristic. (See 356, and 358, 6.)

ABLATIVE OF SPECIFICATION (Ablātīvus līmitātionis).

412. The ablative is used with nouns, adjectives, and verbs to denote IN WHAT RESPECT a thing is true. Thus:—

Pietāte $f\bar{\imath}lius$, consiliīs $par\bar{e}ns$, in affection a son, in counsel a parent.

Iure peritus, skilled in law; pedibus aeger, lame in his feet. Contremisco tota mente et omnibus artubus, I am agitated in my whole mind and all my limbs (Cic.); meā quidem sententiā* pācī semper est consulendum, in my opinion at least the interests of peace are always to be looked out for.

a. Here belongs the ablative in the expressions quid hoc homine faciās, what can you do with such a man? quid illo fiet? what will be done with him? quid to futurum est? what is going to become of you? etc.

For the rare dative with facio in this sense, see 381, a.

NOTE. The tendency to confuse the ablative of characteristic and the ablative of specification can be avoided by remembering that with the first the adjective agrees with the ablative, and with the second it agrees with the noun qualified. Thus:—

Homő aegris pedibus (Characteristic). Homő aeger pedibus (Specification).

Ablative of Separation (Ablātīvus sēparātionis).

413. SEPARATION or PRIVATION is denoted, with various verbs, by the ablative. With persons a preposition

* This case is sometimes regarded as belonging under 404, 3.



 $(ab, d\bar{e}, ex)$ is always used; with things the preposition is sometimes used, sometimes omitted. Thus:—

Quintum Varium pellere possēssionibus conātus est, he tried to drive Quintus Varius from his possessions (Cic.); tūne eam philosophiam sequere, quae spoliat nōs iūdiciō, prīvat adprobātiōne, orbat sēnsibus? do you follow a philosophy which robs us of the ability to pass judgment, deprives us of the power to approve, and takes away the use of the senses? (Cic.); hōc mē līberā metū, free me from this fear (Ter.); tū, lūppiter, hunc ā tuīs ārīs arcēbis, thou, Jupiter, wilt keep this [scoundrel] from thy altars (Cic.); arcem ab incendiō līberāvit, he freed the citadel from fire (Cic.); sē ab Etrūscīs sēcernere, to separate one's self from the Etruscans (Līv.).

For the dative with words of taking away from, see 380.

ABLATIVE OF WANT (Ablātīvus inopiae).

414. So words and adjectives denoting NEED, etc., take the ablative. Thus:—

Virum quī pecūniā egeat, a man who needs money (Cic.); carēre culpā, to be free from fault (Cic.); mea adulēscentia indiget illōrum bonā exīstimātiōne, my youthfulness needs their good opinion (Cic.); inops verbīs, poor in words (Cic.); orba frātribus, bereft of her brothers (Ovid).

a. Egeo and indigeo often take the genitive; as: -

 $Ege\bar{o}$ $c\bar{o}nsil\bar{\iota}$, I need advice; $n\bar{o}n$ tam artis indigent quam laboris, they do not lack skill so much as they lack industry (Cic.)

b. Other words of the kind are, by a Greek idiom, often used with the genitive in the poets; as:—

Abstinētō ōrārum, thou shalt refrain from wrath (Hor.); cum famulīs operum solūtīs, with the slaves released from their tasks (Hor., Odes, iii., 17).

ABLATIVE OF DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE (Ablātīvus mēnsūrae).

415. Degree of difference is expressed by the ablative. Thus:—

Hibernia dīmidiō minor, quam Britannia, Ireland is smaller by half than Britain; quam molestum est ūnō digitō plūs habēre, how irksome it would be to have one finger more [i. e., than we have] (Cic.); multō ante lūcis adventum, long before the coming of the day (Sall.); quō difficilius, hōc praeclārius, the more difficult, the more glorious.

a. An accusative of specification is sometimes used instead of the ablative of measure; as:—

Aliquantum est ad rem avidior, he is somewhat more eager for the thing (Ter.).

NOTE. The ablatives of separation, of want, and of degree of difference, are varieties of the ablative of specification.

ABLATIVE WITH COMPARATIVES.

416. The COMPARATIVE degree, when quam is omitted, is followed by the ablative. Thus:—

Nihil est virtūte fōrmōsius, nothing is more beautiful than virtue (Cic.); quis C. Laeliō cōmior, who more courteous than Gaius Laelius? (Cic.)

a. Quam has to be used if the second term of the comparison is not nominative (or vocative) or accusative; as:—

Adventus hostium fuit agrīs quam urbī terribilior, the arrival of the enemy was more dreadful for the country than for the city (Līv.).

Quam is also frequently used when the second term of the comparison is in one of the cases named. Thus:—

Melior tūtiorque est certa $p\bar{a}x$ quam spērāta victōria, certain peace is better and safer than victory hoped for (Liv.).

b. The words opīniōne, spē, exspectātiōne, fidē, dictō, solitō, aequō, crēdibilī, necessāriō, vērō, iūsto, are used after comparatives to supply the place of a clause. Thus:—

Opinione celerius $vent\bar{u}rus$ esse $d\bar{v}citur$, he is said to be likely to come sooner than one expects (Caes.); $ini\bar{u}ri\bar{u}s$ gravius aequō $hab\bar{v}re$, to take injuries more to heart than is right and fair (Sall.).

c. Plūs, minus, amplius, and longius, with or without quam, are used with words of number or measure without affecting their construction. Thus:—

Non plūs quam quattuor mīlia effūgērunt, not more than four thousand escaped (Līv.); minus duo mīlia hominum ex tantō exercitū effūgērunt, out of so large an army, less than two thousand men escaped (Līv.); mīlitēs Rōmānī saepe plūs dīmidiātī mēnsis cibāria ferēbant, the Roman soldiers used often to carry with them provisions for more than half a month (Cic.).

d. Alius is in verse sometimes construed with the ablative like a comparative; as:—

Neve putes alium sapiente bonoque beatum, nor think any one other than a wise and good man happy (Hor.).

e. Inferior usually takes quam, but is occasionally followed by a dative; as:—

Vir $n\bar{u}ll\bar{u}$ arte cuiquam inferior, a man inferior to none in any kind of craft (Sall.).

NOTE. The foregoing uses of the ablative will sometimes be found to shade into each other so subtly that it is difficult or impossible to assign a given instance to a given class. This is due to the necessity of making a classification for foreigners of things which a native has only to feel.

ABLATIVE IN CERTAIN SPECIAL EXPRESSIONS.

NOTE. The ablative is used with the following sets of words "idiomatically," — that is, the reason for the ablative is not immediately evident, and English usage leads one to expect a different case.

Opus and Usus.

417. Opus and $\bar{u}sus$, meaning NEED,* take the ablative. Thus:—

Auctōritāte tuā $n\bar{o}b\bar{i}s$ opus est, we need your influence (Cic.); nunc animīs opus, nunc pectore firmō, now there is need of courage and a steadfast heart (Verg.); $n\bar{a}v\bar{e}s$, quibus $c\bar{o}nsul\bar{i}$ ūsus $n\bar{o}n$ esset, ships for which the consul had no occasion (Līv.); mātūrātō opus est, there is need of haste (Līv.).

* The ablative here is an ablative of specification, showing the respect in which the need is felt.

a. The person or thing who has the need is expressed by the dative, as in the above examples. The thing needed, besides being expressed by the ablative, is sometimes expressed by the nominative as subject (especially if a neuter pronoun), or rarely by the genitive; as:—

Quod $n\bar{o}n$ opus est, asse $c\bar{a}rum$ est, what is not necessary is dear at a cent (Cic., $d\bar{e}$ Sen.); argentī opus fuit, there was need of silver (Līv.).

An infinitive clause may also be used as subject; as: -

Quid opus est tam valdē adfirmāre, what need of such strong assertion?

Dignus, Indignus, Contentus, Prētus.

418. Dīgnus, indīgnus, contentus, and frētus * take the ablative. Thus:—

Dīgnus laude, worthy of praise; vōx populī māiestāte indīgna, a speech unworthy the dignity of the people (Caes.); bēstiae eō contentae nōn quaerunt amplius, the brutes, content with that, seek nothing further (Cic.); plērīque ingeniō frētī, most of them trusting to their ingenuity (Cic.).

a. Dīgnus and indīgnus sometimes take a genitive, and frētus in Livy takes a dative; as:—

Sūscipe cōgitātiōnem dīgnissimam tuae virtūtis, adopt a plan which is most worthy your own merits; fortūnae frētus, trusting to fortune.

For dignus, indignus, with the subjunctive, see 482, 2.

Utor, Fruor, Punger, Potier, Vescor.

419. Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor,† and some of their compounds, take the ablative. Thus:—

Multī deōrum beneficiō perversē ūtuntur, many people use the blessings of the gods wrongly (Cic., N. D., iii., 28, 70); fruī voluptāte, to enjoy pleasure (Cic.); fungitur officiō, he

- * The ablative with dignus and indignus is also an ablative of specification; with contentus and fretus rather an ablative of cause.
- † The ablative here is really an ablative of means. Thus, frui voluptāte = to get enjoyment by means of pleasure.



performs the duty (Cic.); oppidō potītī sunt, they got possession of the town (Līv.); vescitur aurā, feeds on air (Verg.); lēgibus abūtī, to misuse the laws (Cic.); dēfūnctī imperiō rēgis, having fulfilled the king's command (Līv., i., 4, 5).

a. In early Latin these verbs occur with the accusative. Thus:—

Ūtēris, ut volēs, operam meam, you will use my services as you please (Pl., Poen., v., 2, 128); mūnus fungātur suum, let him perform his duty (Pl., Trin., 354).

Note. In classical Latin these verbs are used in the gerundive, not the gerund, construction (see 550). Therefore, ad urbem potiundam, not ad urbe potiundum, for getting possession of the city; voluptātis fruendae causā, not voluptāte fruendi causā, for the sake of enjoying pleasure.

b. Potior also occurs with the genitive; as: -

 $S\bar{\imath}$ exploratum tibl sit posse $t\bar{e}$ illius regni potiri, if you are satisfied that you can get possession of that kingdom (Cic., Fam., i., 7, 5).

Mitor, Innitor, Pidō, Confidō.

420. Nītor, innītor, $f\bar{\imath}d\bar{o}$, and $c\bar{o}nf\bar{\imath}d\bar{o}$,* take the ablative. Thus:—

Baculō nītī, to lean on a staff; nītī auctōritāte, to depend on (some one's) influence; hastā innīxus, leaning on his spear; fīdere cursū, to trust to running; nātūrā locī confīdēbant, they had confidence in their natural position.

a. $F\bar{\iota}d\bar{o}$ and $c\bar{o}nf\bar{\iota}d\bar{o}$ also sometimes take a dative (see 376), as $diff\bar{\iota}d\bar{o}$ always does.

Adsuesco, Adsuesacio, Consuesco, Insuesco.

421. Adsuēscō, adsuēfaciō, cōnsuēscō, īnsuēscō,* sometimes take the ablative.† Thus:—

 $Av\bar{e}s$ sanguine et praedā adsuētae, birds accustomed to the blood of prey (Hor.); nūllō officiō aut dīsciplīna adsuēfactus, accustomed to no [restraint of] duty or training (Caes.);

- * The ablative with the two sets of verbs treated in 420 and 421 is an ablative of means. Thus, baculō nītī = to support one's self by means of a staff.
 - 7 In Livy and the later writers these verbs are also used with a dative.

nē gravissimo dolore timore consuescerem, in order not to become accustomed to most bitter pain through fear (Plin.).

a. Acquiēscō, repose in, rejoice in, takes most commonly in with an ablative, but (especially in the historians and later writers) also a simple ablative or dative; as —

 $Qu\bar{\imath}$ iam aetāte $pr\bar{\imath}$ vect $\bar{\imath}$, in nostrīs librīs acquiēscunt, those who are now advanced in years find rest in my books (Cic.); $qu\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{a}xim\bar{\imath}$ P. $Cl\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}$ morte acquiērunt, who took the greatest satisfaction in the death of Publius Clodius (Cic.); cui velut $\bar{\imath}$ rācul $\bar{\imath}$ acqui $\bar{\imath}$ sc $\bar{\imath}$ bat, to whom he yielded assent as to an oracle (Su $\bar{\imath}$ t., Vitel., 14).

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE (Ablātīvus absolūtus).

422. A noun and a participle are put in the ablative, not grammatically dependent upon the rest of the sentence, to denote the TIME, REASON, or CIRCUMSTANCES of an action. Thus:—

Pythagorās Tarquiniō rēgnante in Italiam vēnit, Pythagoras came to Italy in the reign of Tarquin (Cic.); hāc ōrātiōne habitā, concilium dīmīsit, when this speech had been delivered, he dismissed the assembly (Caes., B. G., i., 33); virtūte exceptā, nihil amīcitiā praestābilius putētis, regard nothing, with the exception of virtue, as of more value than friendship (Cic.).

a. Two nouns or a noun with an adjective may also be put in the ablative absolute, with the participial notion of "being" * implied. Thus:—

Rōmam vēnit Mariō cōnsule, he came to Rome while Marius was consul (Cic.); quid adulēscente duce efficere possent, what they could do with a youth as leader (Caes.); $Hannibale\ v\bar{v}v\bar{o}$, while Hannibal was living (Nep.).

- b. A clause sometimes supplies the place of the noun; as:—
 Nondum comperto quam in regionem venisset rex,
 not yet having found out into what region the king had come
 (Līv.).
 - * It will be remembered that esse has no present participle.



c. A pronoun which would be in the ablative absolute is sometimes omitted.* Thus:—

Additur dolus, missis $qu\bar{t}$ māgnam vim $l\bar{t}gn\bar{o}rum$ ardentem in $fl\bar{u}men$ conicerent, a crafty scheme was also employed of sending people to throw a lot of burning wood into the stream (Liv., i., 37); causam $d\bar{t}gress\bar{u}s$ requirentibus, when they sought the cause of the departure (Tac., Hist., i., 27).

- d. The ablative absolute is chiefly used with the present participle or the perfect passive participle, and when the word in the ablative does not otherwise occur in the sentence, but it also occasionally occurs in the following cases:—
 - (1.) Future participle: -

Inruptūris tam īnfestīs nātionibus, when such hostile nations were on the point of bursting in (Līv.).

(2). Perfect participle of a deponent verb (rare with an object, but not uncommon otherwise):—

Sullā omnia pollicitō, Sulla having promised everything (Sall., Iug., 103, 7); secūtīs omnibus, all following (Hor., S., ii., 8, 40); virtūtibus ad cruciātum profectīs, the virtues going to the rack (Cic., Tūsc., v., 28, 80).

(3.) The ablative denoting the same person as the subject or object of the sentence:—

Ōstendit sō mihǐ infidēlem nunquam, sō vīvā, fore, she shows me that she will never be unfaithful to me, as long as she lives (Plaut., Truc., ii., 4, 85); Caesar, obsidibus imperātīs, hōs Haeduīs cūstōdiendōs trādit, Caesar, having ordered hostages, gives them over to the Haeduans to guard (Caes., B. G., vi., 4); nēmō erit quī crēdat tō invītō prōvinciam tibī esse dēcrētam, there will be no one who will believe that the province was assigned you against your own will (Cic., Phil., xi., 10, 23).

* Expressions like tranquillō, with a calm sea, serēnō, under a clear sky, etc., may be considered as ablatives absolute with the noun omitted; or, perhaps better, as ablatives of time, like lūdīs, comitis, at the games, elections, etc. (See 424, b.)

(4.) With a predicate word added: -

Dolābellā hesternō diē hoste dēcrētō, Dolabella having been yesterday decreed an enemy (Cic., Phil., xi., 7, 16).

For the Constructions of Place and Time, see 423 ff. For the Cases with Prepositions, see 428 ff.

CONSTRUCTIONS OF PLACE AND TIME.

DURATION OF TIME AND EXTENT OF SPACE.

423. DURATION OF TIME and EXTENT OF SPACE are expressed by the accusative. Thus:—

Appius caecus multōs annōs fuit, Appius was blind for many years (Cic.); diēs tōtōs $d\bar{e}$ virtūte disserunt, they discuss (about) virtue whole days together (Cic.); cum abessem ab $Am\bar{a}n\bar{o}$ iter $\bar{u}n\bar{i}us$ $di\bar{e}\bar{i}$, when I was one day's journey from Mount Amanus (Cic.).

(a.) MEASURE may also be expressed by a genitive of characteristic (cf. 356). Thus:—

 $Du\bar{a}s\ f\bar{o}ss\bar{a}s$ quindecim pedēs $l\bar{a}t\bar{a}s\ perd\bar{u}xit$, he drew out two ditches fifteen feet wide (Caes.); but also, $vall\bar{o}$ pedum duodecim, with a rampart of twelve feet in height (Caes., B. G., ii., 5).

b. Distance may also be expressed by an ablative of measure (cf. 415). Thus:—

Tria passuum mīlia ab ipsā urbe castra posuit, he pitched his camp three miles from the city itself (Līv.); but also, mīlibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castrīs cōnsēdit, he encamped six miles from Caesar's camp (Caes.).

TIME AT WHICH.

424. Time at which or within which is expressed by the ablative. Thus:—

Hōc tempore, at this time; tertiā vigiliā ēruptionem fēcērunt, they made a sally in the third watch (Caes.); ut hieme nāvigēs, for you to sail in winter (Cic.)



a. The ablative occasionally also denotes duration of time; as:—

Mīlitēs quinque hōris proelium sūstinuērunt, the soldiers maintained the battle for five hours (Caes., B. C., i., 47).

b. Many words are used as ablatives of time where the English idiom leads us to expect a different construction. Thus:—

Lūdīs, at the games; comitiīs, at the elections; initiō or prīncipīo, in the beginning; adventū, on the arrival; discēssū, on the departure; tumultū, bellō, pāce, etc., (in time of) insurrection, war, peace, etc.

c. The day of the month is commonly expressed by the formula ante diem . . . $Kalend\bar{a}s,\,N\bar{o}n\bar{a}s,\,$ or $\bar{I}d\bar{u}s,\,$ with the name of the month as an adjective agreeing with $Kalend\bar{a}s,\,N\bar{o}n\bar{a}s,\,$ or $\bar{I}d\bar{u}s.\,$ Thus: —

Is dies erat ante diem quintum Kalendās Aprīlīs, L. Pīsone A. Gabīnio consulibus, that day was the fifth before the first of April (i. e., Mar. 28th*), in the consulship of Lucius Piso and Aulus Gabinius (Caes., B. G., i., 6).

- d. The year is regularly denoted by the names of the consuls in the ablative absolute, and generally without a connective, as in the preceding example.
- e. Instead of ante diem, etc., sometimes a simple ablative of time is used, the name of the month remaining in the accusative: as:—

Quintō decimō diē Kalendās Sextīlīs (XV Kal. Sext.), the fifteenth day before the first of August (i. e., July 18th *).

f. The whole expression ante diem . . . Kal., etc., may be treated as a noun and governed by a preposition. Thus:—

Caedem optimātium contulerat in ante diem quīntum Kalendās Novembrīs, he had assigned the massacre of the nobles to the 28th of October (cf. Cic., Cat., i., 3, 7).

For further treatment of the Roman calendar, see 661.

* It must be remembered that the Romans, in reckoning from one day to another, included both days, while we exclude one of them. Thus the 28th of March was to the Romans the fifth day before the 1st of April, while to us it is the fourth day.

PLACE TO, AT, IN, FROM WHICH.

425. Relations of place (except with names of towns) are expressed by prepositions, with the accusative for PLACE TO WHICH, and the ablative for PLACE AT, IN, or FROM, WHICH. Thus:—

Tē in Epīrum vēnisse gaudeō, I am glad you have reached Epirus (Cic.); inde ad montem altum pervēnērunt, from there they came to a high mountain; cruentum bellum in Āfricā gerēbātur, a bloody war was going on in Africa; in forō illum inveniēs, you will find him at the market-place; ex Asiā trānsībis in Eurōpam, from Asia you will go across to Europe; ab flūmine statim discēdere iūssit, he ordered them to go away from the river at once.

- 426. With names of towns (and small islands) —
- (1.) No preposition is used; as:—

 $R\bar{e}gulus$ Karthāginem rediit, Regulus went back to Carthage (Cic.); $Pausaniam\ cum\ classe$ Cyprum $m\bar{i}s\bar{e}runt$, they sent Pausanias to Cyprus with a fleet (Nep.); $n\bar{a}tus$ Tībure vel Gabiīs, born at Tibur or Gabii (Hor.); Brundisiō $profect\bar{i}\ sumus$, we started from Brundisium (Cic.); $D\bar{e}mar\bar{a}tus$ Tarquiniōs Corinthō $f\bar{u}git$, Demaratus fled from Corinth to Tarquinii.

(2.) The PLACE IN or AT WHICH has the locative form where that is different from the ablative.* Thus:—

Rōmae aliquot mēnsēs morābāmur, we tarried some months at Rome; Dionysius tyrannus Syrācūsīs expulsus Corinthī puerōs docēbat, Dionysius the tyrant, when driven from Syracuse, kept a boys' school at Corinth (Cic.); Karthāginī mortuus est, he died at Carthage.

But: --

Athēnīs Platō vīvēbat, Plato lived at Athens; Sardibus haec facta sunt, this took place at Sardis; etc.

* That is, in the singular of the first and second declensions, and sometimes of the third. (See 88, a, 93, 97, 3, 112.)

- a. Like names of towns are used domus, home, and $r\bar{u}s$, country, with the locatives bell $\bar{\iota}$, $m\bar{\iota}litiae$, in the field or at war, $hum\bar{\iota}$, on the ground, and the expressions for $\bar{\iota}s$, out of doors, $terr\bar{u}$ $mar\bar{\iota}que$, on land and sea. A locative $domu\bar{\iota}$, as well as $dom\bar{\iota}$, occurs.
- b. A remnant of the locative case is seen in the use of animī with verbs and adjectives of emotion; as, excruciārī animī, to be tortured in soul; aeger animī, sick at heart; etc.
- c. The ablatives $loc\bar{o}$ and parte, and sometimes others of general meaning, are used without a preposition to denote the place where. So also the preposition is sometimes omitted, when the ablative is qualified by an adjective (especially $t\bar{o}tus$). Thus:—

Hōc locō, in this place; eā parte, on that side; urbe tōtā gemitus fit, a groan arises in the whole town (Cic.); tōtā Asiā vagātur, he wanders in all Asia (Cic.); mediā urbe, in the midst of the city (Līv., i., 33).

- d. With $libr\bar{o}$, capite, $vers\bar{u}$, etc., meaning the book, chapter, verse, etc., as a whole, no preposition is used; but if a particular place in them is meant, the preposition is necessary.
- e. The preposition is sometimes omitted with names of countries (especially when connected with names of towns), but mostly in the ante-classical and post-classical writers. Cicero and Caesar use only Aegyptum thus. The poets omit the preposition often even with common nouns. Thus:—

 $R\bar{o}mae$ Numidiaeque facinora $\bar{e}ius$ memorat, he mentions his doings at Rome and in Numidia (Sall., Iug., 33, 4); $l\bar{\imath}tterae$ Macedoniā $adl\bar{a}tae$, a letter brought from Macedonia (L $\bar{\imath}v.$); Italiam $f\bar{a}t\bar{o}$ profugus Lav $\bar{\imath}niaque$ $v\bar{e}nit$ l $\bar{\imath}tora$, driven by fate into exile he came to Italy and the shores of Lavinium (Verg., Ae., i., 2); f $\bar{\imath}nibus$ o $mn\bar{e}s$ pr $\bar{\imath}silu\bar{e}re$ su $\bar{\imath}s$, they all leaped forth from their confines (Verg.).

f. The accusative is used in Latin whenever motion to is implied, even where the English idiom leads us to expect the ablative. Thus:—

Coniūrātī in cūriam convēnērunt, the conspirators met in

the senate house; $l\bar{e}g\bar{a}t\bar{o}s$ Karthaginem in Africam misērunt, they sent ambassadors to Carthage in Africa.

g. When the word for "town" is put in apposition with the name of the town, and has no adjective with it, the proper name generally stands after the common noun, and takes its case. Thus:—

Vercingetorix expellitur ex oppidō Gergoviā, Vercingetorix is being driven out of the town of Gergovia; Cimōn in oppidō Citiō est mortuus, Cimon died in the town of Citium.

h. When the word for "town" has an attributive with it, the proper name stands first, and if in the locative retains its own case. A preposition meaning "at" or "in" is here often omitted with the word for "town;" occasionally also one meaning "from." Thus:—

Tūsculō, ex clūrissimō mūnicipiō, from Tusculum, a famous town; Iugurtha Thalam pervenit, in oppidum māgnum et opulentum, Jugurtha arrives at Thala, a large and wealthy town; Cicerō Arpīnī parvō (in) oppidō Latī nātūs est, Cicero was born at Arpinum, a small town of Latium.

427. Prepositions are sometimes used with expressions of TIME for greater accuracy, and with names of towns to denote TO, IN, or FROM, THE NEIGHBORHOOD of the place.

Quem per decem annōs aluimus, whom we have been rearing for ten years (Cic.); dē tertiā vigiliā ad hostēs contendit, he hastened against the enemy during the third watch (Caes.); in diēbus proximīs decem, within the next ten days (Sall.); iter dīrigere ad Mutinam, to turn one's journey towards Modena (Cic.); ab Alexandrīā profectus, starting from Alexandria (Cic.); ex domō, from home.

Cases with Prepositions.

428. The cases used with prepositions are the accusative and the ablative.



429. The ACCUSATIVE is used with the following twenty-six prepositions: -

ad, to, towards. adversus (adversum), against. ante. before. apud, near. circum (circa). around. circiter. about. cis (citrā), this side of. penes, in the power of. contrā, beyond.

ergā, towards. extrā, outside of. infrā, below. inter, among. intrā, within. iūxtā, next. ob, against, on account of. per, through.

pone, behind. post, after. praeter, along by. prope, near. propter, near, on account of. secundum, after. suprā, above. trāns, across. ültrā, beyond.

Thus:—

Ad templum non aequae Palladis ibant, they went to the temple of the unpropitious Minerva (Verg.); adversus hostēs, against the foe (Līv.); Germānī quī cis Rhēnum incolunt, the Germans who live this side of the Rhine (Caes.); cum tuntum resideat intrā mūrōs malī, when so much evil remains within the city (Cic.); prīncipiō rērum imperium penes rēgēs erat, in the beginning the power (over things) was in the hands of kings (Just.); templum ponam propter aquam, I will build a temple near the water (Verg.); inter agendum, in the midst of doing; ante donandum, before giving (Verg.).

a. Cis is generally used with names of places, citrā with other words also: as: -

Cis Taurum, this side Mt. Taurus; citrā Veliam, this side Velia; citrā satietātem, short of satiety.

- b. $Erg\bar{a}$ is very rarely used in classical Latin except with names of persons.
- 430. The ABLATIVE is used with the following ten prepositions: —

ā or ab, from, by. absque, without. coram,* in presence of.

cum, with. dē, from, about. ē or ex, out of. prae, before.

prō, before. sine, without. tenus, as far as.

^{*} Not before Cicero.

Thus: —

- Ab illō tempore, from that time; cum exercitū, with an army; certīs dē causīs, for particular reasons; ex $fug\bar{a}$, from flight; sine $lab\bar{o}re$, without trouble.
- 431. In, sub, subter, super, take the accusative when motion is implied (even figuratively); the ablative for relations of REST:—

Via $d\bar{u}cit$ in urbem, the way leads into town (Verg.); exercitus sub iugum $m\bar{\imath}ssus$ est, the army was sent under the yoke (Caes.); $c\bar{\upsilon}nsul$ subter mūrum hostium ad cohortēs advehitur, the consul rides up to the cohorts close under the walls of the enemy (Līv., xxxiv., 20, 8); super $l\bar{u}bentem$ culmina $t\bar{e}ct\bar{\imath}$, gliding over the gable of the roof (Verg.).

 $Medi\bar{a}$ in urbe, in the midst of the city (Ovid.); bella sub Iliacīs moenibus gerere, to wage war at the foot of the walls of Troy (Ovid.); super tenerō $pr\bar{o}sternit$ grāmine corpus, he stretches his body on the tender sward (Verg.).

Noster in tē amor, my love towards you; hostīlem in modum, after a hostile fashion; sub $e\bar{a}$ condiciōne, on this condition; sub adventū $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}n\bar{o}rum$, just before the arrival of the Romans; multa super Priamō rogitāns super Hectore multa, asking many questions about Priam and of Hector many (Verg.).

- a. Subter with the ablative is rare and chiefly poetical.
- b. Super in the meaning "about," as in the last example, takes the ablative. Otherwise it almost always takes the accusative.
- c. Verbs of PLACING (except sometimes $imp\bar{o}n\bar{o}$) take the ablative, not accusative, with in, notwithstanding the implied motion; as:—

 $Tr\bar{e}s\ legi\bar{o}n\bar{e}s$ in illā urbe posuit, he stationed three legions in that city.

d. Tenus regularly follows its noun. Various other prepositions occasionally do so, but chiefly in the poets. Prepositions of one syllable are the least common in this position. Thus:—

Capulo tenus, as far as the hilt (Verg., Ae., x., 536); vēsti-

bulum ante, before the entrance court (Verg., Ae., vi., 273); $t\bar{e}$ propter, on your account (Verg., Ae., iv., 320).

e. Cum is always appended to the personal pronouns, and generally to the relative and interrogative forms, $qu\bar{o}$, $qu\bar{a}$, quibus, $qu\bar{i}$. Thus:—

Est $mih\tilde{\imath}$ tēcum $am\bar{\imath}citia$ vetus, I have a long-standing friendship with you; $\nabla\bar{o}$ bīscum simul, along with you; $fr\bar{a}ter$ quōcum Antiochum $v\bar{\imath}cerat$, the brother with whom he had conquered Antiochus.

f. Tenus occasionally takes the genitive, thus retaining its original force as a noun; as:—

Corcyrae tenus, as far as Corcyra.

g. Certain adverbs sometimes take the accusative or ablative like prepositions. So, with the accusative, $pr\bar{d}i\bar{e}$, $postr\bar{i}di\bar{e}$,* propius, $proxim\bar{e}$ (cf. 390, 4), $\bar{u}sque$; with the ablative, palam, procul, simul; with either case (or occasionally with a genitive or dative), clam. Thus: $proxum\bar{e}$ $Karth\bar{u}ginem$, close to Carthage (Sall., Jug., 18, 11); palam $popul\bar{o}$, before the people (Līv., vi., 14, 5); clam $ux\bar{o}rem$, unknown to his wife (Plaut., Merc., 545); clam patris, unknown to his father (Plaut., Merc., 43).

NOTE. All the prepositions denoted originally relations of PLACE, taking the accusative where motion to or towards a place was implied, otherwise the ablative. This distinction is also easily traceable in most of the figurative uses of the prepositions as they grew out of the relations of place.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF NOUNS.

The following points in the use of Latin nouns deserve especial notice:—

432. Concrete nouns are used to denote the time of life at which a person does something, where in English an abstract noun or a clause is used. Thus:—

Adulēscēns Catō in Hispāniā mīlitāverat, Cato had served in Spain when a young man (or in his youth).

So, \bar{a} puer \bar{o} , etc., from boyhood, etc.

* These two words also take a genitive (see 355, 5, b).



433. So also in designations of office. Thus:

Catilinae coniūrātionem Cicero consul oppressit, Cicero, when consul, overthrew the conspiracy of Catiline.

- a. In $c\bar{o}nsul\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ su \bar{o} can, however, also be used.
- 434. Abstract nouns are often used in a collective sense; as, $l\bar{e}g\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$, an embassy; $n\bar{o}bilit\bar{a}s$, the aristocracy; $iuvent\bar{u}s$, the youth; levis $arm\bar{a}t\bar{u}ra$, the light armed troops.
- 435. The singular of nouns denoting persons is also used collectively instead of the plural, especially in military expressions; as, $m\bar{\imath}les$, the soldiery; hostis, the enemy; Poenus, the Carthaginian(s). (Cf. also 346, 1, a.)
- 436. The singular is thus used for the plural in names of animals (to denote food), and of plants, and sometimes other words. Thus:—

Vīlla abundat porcō, haedō, etc., the farmhouse has plenty of pork, goat's meat, etc.*; caput redimīre rosā, to bind the head with roses; fabā vescī, to feed on beans; bēstiae plūmā obductae, animals covered with feathers.

- 437. The plural is used where in English the singular is preferred:—
- (1.) To indicate a thing as belonging to SEVERAL PERSONS or to PEOPLE IN GENERAL. Thus:—

Hostes terga vertunt, the enemy turn their back; animī hominum immortālēs sunt, the soul of man is immortal.

- (2.) In names of materials, etc., to denote KINDS or PIECES of the thing mentioned; as, $v\bar{\imath}na$, kinds of wine; $carn\bar{e}s$, pieces of flesh; $\bar{\iota}\bar{\imath}gna$, bits of wood.
- (3.) In abstract nouns, to denote INSTANCES of the quality. Thus:—

Clārae mortēs pro patriā oppetītae beātae vidērī solent, an illustrious death met for one's country is regarded as a happiness; in odia hominum incurrere, to run into men's dislike.

* The same example will be found more fully quoted on p. 230.

a. The plural is not infrequently used for the singular in poetry, as having a more elevated and impressive effect.

Note. Except in the uses mentioned, abstract nouns are much less common in Latin than in English, verb constructions, or nouns of general meaning, like rēs, with an adjective, being used instead. The pupil should be particularly warned against using the longer abstracts in -tās, -tia, -tiō, etc., freely as equivalents of the English words derived from them.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES.

The following points in the use of adjectives deserve especial notice:—

- 438. Adjectives are often used as nouns: —
- (1.) Especially, adjectives denoting RELATIONSHIP, or CONNECTION WITH, are often more common as nouns than as real adjectives; as:—

 $C\bar{o}gn\bar{a}tus$ (-a), a relative; $adf\bar{i}nis$, a connection; $am\bar{i}cus$ (-a), a friend; $aequ\bar{a}lis$, a contemporary; $v\bar{i}c\bar{i}nus$ (-a), a neighbor.

a. So the gentile adjectives; as: -

Romanus, a Roman; Atheniensis, an Athenian.

(2.) In the masculine plural, as in English, to denote CLASSES of people; as:—

Bonī, the good; dīvitēs, the rich; doctī, the learned.

a. In the singular, to denote a class, the nominative is rare; but the other cases are not uncommon, especially the genitive with esse; as:—

Dēmentis hoc est, this is the part of a madman.

(3.) In the neuter, to denote THINGS; as:—
Bonum, a good thing; malum, an evil.

And especially perfect participles; as: —

Factum, a deed; responsum, an answer.

a. The participle thus made a noun may still be modified by an adverb; as, praeclārē factum as well as praeclārum factum. In such cases, bene, male, and rēctē are always used rather than the corresponding adjectives.

- 439. Neuter adjectives are also used substantively:—
- (1.) In the singular, in philosophical language, to express abstract ideas; as: -

Rectum, the right; turpe, the base; summum bonum, the highest good.

(2.) As partitive genitives; as:—

Aliquid novī, something new.

(3.) In phrases with prepositions; as:—

In mediō relinquere, to leave undecided; in medium prōferre, to bring before people; in tūtō esse, to be in safety; sine dubio, without doubt.

(4.) In the plural where in English often an abstract singular is used; as: —

Iūsta $d\bar{\imath}cere$, to say what is just; pēstifera \bar{a} salūtāribus discernere, to distinguish the baneful from the salutary.

a. Only the nominative and accusative are common in this use. Confusion with the similar masculine forms would often arise in the other cases, and then $r\bar{e}s$ is used with the adjective (bonārum $r\bar{e}rum = bon\bar{o}rum$, n., etc.). But where there is no danger of ambiguity such neuters occur; as: —

Prīmum omnium, first of all things.

440. Adjectives are often used in Latin where English prefers a possessive case or a noun with a preposition, especially adjectives formed from names of nations or individuals. Thus: --

Mīlitēs Pompējānī, the soldiers of Pompey; ōrātiō Ciceroniana, an oration of Cicero's; bellum Iugurthinum, the war against Jugurtha; pūgna Cannēnsis, the battle of Cannae; Dion Syrācūsānus, Dion of Syracuse.

441. Attributive adjectives are very rarely used in direct agreement with proper names or with words like consul, which characterize an individual. The adjective is commonly made to agree with an appellative noun put in apposition with the proper name. Thus: "the wise Scipio" is $Sc\bar{\imath}pi\bar{o}$, vir sapientissimus; "wealthy Capua" is Capua, urbs opulentissima.

- a. Adjectives of quantity or number, however, are common as attributives. Thus: $t\bar{o}ta$ $Hisp\bar{a}nia$, entire Spain; $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ duo, two Romans. So also in expressions like $Pomp\bar{e}ius$ māgnus, Pompey the Great; $Karth\bar{a}g\bar{o}$ nova, new Carthage; $Sc\bar{i}pi\bar{o}$ māior, Scipio the elder.
- 442. The superlatives summus, īmus, ūltimus, extrēmus, prīmus, with the word medius, are used, directly agreeing with a noun, to denote the TOP or BOTTOM, HIGHEST, FIRST, MIDDLE part of, etc. Thus:—

Summus $m\bar{o}ns$, the top of the mountain; in extrema $\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ - $ti\bar{o}ne$, at the end of his speech; media ab urbe, from the middle of the city; prīmā $aest\bar{a}te$, at the beginning of summer.

So, novissimō $\bar{a}gmine$, on the rear of the line of march.

For special uses of Comparatives and Superlatives, see 164.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF PRONOUNS.

Personal and Possessive Pronouns.

443. In the FIRST PERSON the plural of the personal and possessive pronouns is often used, out of politeness, for the singular ($pl\bar{u}r\bar{a}lis\ modestiae$). Thus:—

Hunc librum ad tē dē senectūte mīsimus, this book I have written on old age and dedicated to you (Cic., Sen., i., 3); Catōnis sermō explicābit nostram omnem dē senectūte sententiam, Cato's words will explain all my opinion about old age (Cic., ibīdem).

- a. The plural of the SECOND PERSON is never used as in English for the singular. When it seems to be so used, it will always be found that more persons than the individual addressed are referred to; as, for instance, his family or comrades.
- 444. The possessive pronouns, like the personals (cf. 316, a), are expressed only when *emphatic* (as marking a contrast) or to *avoid ambiguity*. In the first case they precede, in the second they follow, their noun. Thus:—

Deinde egŏ illum dē suō rēgnō, ille mē dē nostrā rē pūblicā percontātus est, then I questioned him about his kingdom and he me about our state (Cic., $R\bar{e}$ $P\bar{u}b$., vi., 9); vestra $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$ quae dīcitur vīta mors est, but your so called life is really death (Cic., $R\bar{e}$ $P\bar{u}b$., vi., 14).

Quōcircā si sapientiam meam admīrārī solētis—quae utinam dīgna esset opīniōne vestrā nostrōque cōgnōmine!—in hōc sumus sapientēs, quod, etc., therefore if you are wont to look with admiration upon my wisdom—oh that it were worthy of your good opinion and my surname (i. e., Sapiens)!—it is in this that I am wise, that, etc. (Cic., Sen., 2, 5).

Reflexive and Intensive Pronouns.

445. (1.) The reflexive pronouns, $s\bar{e}$ and suus, are used primarily to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand. Thus:—

Oppidānī facinus in sē āc suōs foedum et ferum cōnscīscunt, the townspeople resolve upon a barbarous and revolting deed against themselves and theirs (Līv., xxviii., 22, 5).

Ipse se quisque $d\bar{\imath}ligit$, $n\bar{o}n$ ut aliquam \bar{a} se ipse mercedem exigat $c\bar{a}rit\bar{a}tis$ suae, sed quod per se sibi quisque $c\bar{a}rus$ est, every one loves himself, not in the expectation of getting from himself any reward whatever for his fondness, but because every one is fond of himself for his own sake (Cic., Am., 21, 80).

Ariovistus respondit $n\bar{o}n$ oportēre sēsē \bar{a} populā $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}n\bar{o}$ in suā $i\bar{u}re$ impedīrī, Ariovistus answered that he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his own rights (Caes., B. G., i., 36).

Caesar, mīlitēs cohortātus ut suae prīstinae virtūtis memoriam retinērent, Caesar, having exhorted the soldiers to hold fast to the remembrance of their own old time valor (Caes., B. G., ii., 21).

a. Thus in the Indirect Discourse sē regularly refers to the speaker, while the person addressed is referred to by illum or eum.

(2.) In dependent clauses which are so thoroughly subordinated that the subject of the main clause is left more prominently in the mind than the subject of the subordinate clause, $s\bar{e}$ and suus refer to the subject of the main clause, unless ambiguity might be caused thereby. Thus:—

Ōrātor sagūciter pervēstīget quid suī cīvēs cōgitent, opīnentur, exspectent, our orator will cleverly search out the thoughts, opinions, and expectations of his own countrymen (cf. Cic., $d\bar{c}$ $\bar{C}r$., i., 51, 223).

Africanus, $s\bar{s}$ sua $r\bar{e}s$ agerētur, $t\bar{e}stim\bar{o}nium$ $n\bar{o}n$ $d\bar{i}ceret$, Africanus would not be giving evidence, if it were his case that was before the court (Cic., $R\bar{o}sc$. Am., 36, 103).

Camillus miht scripsit te secum locutum esse, Camillus wrote me that you had talked with him (Cic., Att., xi., 23, 1).

a. This reference of $s\bar{e}$ or suus chiefly occurs where from the nature of the situation a reflexive referring to the subject of the subordinate clause would be unnatural or impossible, as in the examples, and where if the dependent sentence were independent it would not contain a reflexive. Thus the first and third examples above would become:—

Quid cogitant (etc.) cīvēs eius (i. e., orātoris); tū cum eo (i. e., Camillo) locūtus es.

b. If any ambiguity might arise, ipse is used in the subordinate clause to refer to the subject of the main clause. Thus:—

Iugurtha lēgātōs mīsit quī ipsī līberīsque vītam peterent, Jugurtha sent ambassadors to beg for his life and his children's (cf. Sall., Iug., 46, 2).

- 446. $S\bar{e}$ and suus may further be used, when it can be done without ambiguity, to refer to words other than the subject, especially:—
- (1.) To the person thought of as acting, though not grammatically the subject. Thus:—

 $ar{A}$ Caesare invitor ut sim sibi $l\bar{e}g\bar{a}tus$, I am invited by Caesar to be his lieutenant; $v\bar{o}s$ ex M. Favōniō audīstis

Clōdium sibi dīxisse peritūrum Milōnem, you have heard Marcus Favonius say that Clodius had told him that Milo should die (Cic., Mil., 16, 44); contentum suīs rēbus esse sunt māximae dīvitiae, to be content with one's lot is great riches.

(2.) In various cases where the English puts in "own" or "very." Thus:—

Rōmānīs multitūdō sua auxit animum, their very numbers increased the courage of the Romans; valētūdinem ipsam per sē expetimus, we aim at good health for its own sake.

a. Thus sometimes two or more instances of $s\bar{e}$ occur in the same sentence referring to different persons. Thus:—

Scythae petēbant ut rēgis suī fīliam mātrimōniō sibǐ iungeret, the Scythians asked him [i. e., Alexander] to unite the daughter of their king to himself in marriage (Curt.); quod sibǐ Caesar dēnūntiāret sē Haeduōrum iniūriās nōn neglēctūrum, nēminem sēcum sine suā perniciē contendisse, as to Caesar's announcement to him [Ariovistus] that he [Caesar] would not disregard the wrongs done to the Haeduans, nobody had fought with him [Ariovistus] without coming to grief himself [i. e., nēmō] (Caes., B. G., i. 36).

447. The place of the third personal pronoun when not reflexive is supplied by is, ea, id, or, if a stronger form is wanted, by ille or htc. Thus:—

Quod ferē cottīdiānīs proeliīs cum Germānīs contendunt cum aut suīs fīnibus eōs prohibent, aut ipsī in eōrum fīnibus bellum gerunt, because they struggle in almost daily battles with the Germans, when either they try to keep them out of their country or themselves make war in the Germans' country (Caes., B. G., i., 1); Ariovistus respondit, sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse; sī quid ille sē velit, illum ad sē venīre oportēre, Ariovistus answered that if he had wanted any thing of Caesar he should have gone to him; if Caesar wanted any thing of him he ought to come to him (Caes., B. G., i., 34).

a. Sometimes the demonstrative is used where the reflexive



would seem more natural. Here the writer changes for the moment from the point of view of the subject to his own point of view. Thus:—

Helvētiī persuādent Rauracīs ut ūnā cum iīs proficiscantur, the Helvetians persuaded the Rauraci to go forth with them (Caes.); ita sē gessit [Ligārius] ut eī pācem esse expedīret, Ligarius so conducted himself that it was for his advantage to have peace (Cic.); [Delphōs] postquam ventum est, cupīdō incēssit animōs iuvenum scīscitandī ad quem eōrum rēgnum Rōmānum esset ventūrum, after they had come to Delphi a desire entered the minds of the young men to find out to which of them the Roman kingdom was to come (Līv., i., 56, 10).

448. The intensive ipse is used:—

(1.) To express the emphasis which is given in English by "himself," "herself," "itself," or "very," or by some circumlocution like that in the last example below. Thus:—

Ipsa spēs inopiam sūstentābat, their hope itself (or their very hope) made their want endurable; ā multīs ipsa virtūs contemnitur, virtue herself is despised by many; praecipitur ut nōbīsmet ipsīs imperēmus, it is taught that we should exercise control over ourselves; medicī ipsī sē cūrāre nōn possunt, physicians cannot cure themselves; Lucrētia sē ipsa interēmit, Lucretia killed herself with her own hand.

Cf. also the first example under 447.

- a. The Romans had a fancy for making ipse agree with the subject, as in the last two examples, where we put "self" with the object.
- (2.) To refer (in the same way that $s\bar{e}$ refers to the subject of its own sentence), to a person or thing in another sentence connected with its own; as:—

Ariovistus respondit, sī quid ipsī \bar{a} Caesare opus esset, etc. See this example under 447 on preceding page, and also cf. 445, 2, b.

449. The reciprocal meaning of the English "each other," "one another," is expressed in Latin as follows:—

(1.) By inter $n\bar{o}s$, inter $v\bar{o}s$, and, for the third person, when the reference is to a nominative or an accusative, by inter $s\bar{e}$; otherwise by inter $ips\bar{o}s$. Thus:—

Inter nos nātūrā coniūnctī sumus, we are bound to each other by natural ties; frātrēs inter sē cum fōrmā tum mōribus similēs, brothers resembling each other in both person and character (Cic.); ferās inter sēsē conciliat nātūra, nature makes wild beasts agree with one another (Cic.); incidunt aliqua a doctīs etiam inter ipsōs mūtuō reprehēnsa, some things come in which learned people reciprocally blame in each other (Quint.).

a. With inter sē a reflexive accusative or dative is omitted;

Puerī amant (sc. sē) inter sē, the boys love each other; $c\bar{\imath}v\bar{e}s$ inter sē (sc. sibǐ) $gr\bar{a}tul\bar{a}bantur$, the citizens congratulated each other.

(2.) Or alter, repeated in a different case, may be used when only two persons or things are meant; alius, if more than two are meant. The plural of alter is used of two parties. Thus:—

Mīlitēs alius alium hortātur, the soldiers encourage one another; noxiī ambō alter in alterum causam cōnferunt, both being guilty they each throw the blame upon the other; alterī alterōs vincere quōvīs modō volunt, each side wishes to beat the other by any possible means.

Cf. also, homines inter se alii aliis prodesse volunt, men wish to benefit each other reciprocally.

(3.) Or a noun or pronoun may be repeated in a different case. Thus:—

Tantae fuērunt tenebrae ut per bīduum nēmō hominem homō āgnōsceret, the darkness was so great that for two days men could not recognize each other at all (Cic., N. D., ii., 38, 96); Atticus moriēns nōn ex vītā sed ex domō in domum migrāre vidēbātur, Atticus in dying seemed not to be moving out of life but out of one home into another (cf. Nep., xxv., 22);

neque $d\bar{\imath}i\bar{u}dic\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ posset uter utri virtute anteferendus viderētur, nor could it be decided which of the two seemed more admirable in valor than the other (Caes., B. G., v., 44).

Demonstrative Pronouns.

In addition to what was said of the demonstratives in 181, the following points deserve notice:—

450. (1.) $H\tilde{i}c$ (especially the neuter $h\tilde{o}c$) is used to refer to something immediately to be introduced; but if the thing is to be marked emphatically as opposed to other things said, ille (especially illud) is used. Thus:

Inter omnēs hoc constat, virorum esse fortium toleranter dolorem patē, all men are agreed upon this point, that to suffer pain with patient endurance is characteristic of brave men; hoc modo locūtus est, he spoke as follows.

But: cum multa alia $m\bar{v}r\bar{a}bilia$ sunt tum illud imp $r\bar{v}m\bar{v}s$, not only are there many other admirable things, but this is especially admirable; illud $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$ $\bar{v}dem$ Caecilius viti $\bar{o}sius$, but the following remark of the same Caecilius is more reprehensible (Cic., Sen., 8, 25).

(2.) Ille often refers to that which is well known, famous, or of general notoriety. Thus:—

 $M\bar{e}d\bar{e}a$ illa, the Medea of story; $m\bar{a}gn\bar{o}$ illī $Alexandr\bar{o}$ simillimus, closely resembling the (well known) great Alexander.

(3.) Is is used as the antecedent of a relative which describes a class of persons or things = "he who," "the one who," "such as." Thus:

Eum qui palam est adversārius facile cavendō vītāre possīs, one who is openly an enemy you can easily escape by guarding against him; neque enim $t\bar{u}$ is es qui quid sīs nēsciās, for you are not such a person as not to know what you are (Cic.).

a. Is is sometimes used to resume mention of a preceding subject where it seems unnecessary; as:—

Servus meus auf $\bar{u}git$; is est in $pr\bar{v}inci\bar{a}$ $tu\bar{a}$, a slave of mine has run away; he is in your domain.

b. When "that" or "those of" is used in English instead of the repetition of a noun, no pronoun is used in Latin. Thus:—

Philippus hostium manūs saepe vītāvit, suōrum effugere nōn valuit, Philip often escaped the hands of his enemies, but did not succeed in avoiding those of his own subjects (Curt.); Numae rēgnum multō erat pācātius quam Rōmulī, Numa's reign was much more peaceful than that of Romulus. (Cf. also 353, e).

Relative Pronouns.

In addition to what was said in 342-344 about relative pronouns, the following points should be noted:—

451. The relative is often used to connect an independent sentence with what has gone before, where in English a different form of connection is used. Thus:—

Multās ad rēs perūtilēs Xenophontis librī sunt, quōs legite, quaesō, studiōsē, Xenophon's works are very profitable in many respects, and I beg you read them zealously; quae cum ita sint, Catilīna, perge quō coepistī, now since this is so, Catiline, go on as you have begun.

- a. A special instance of this connecting relative is seen in the use of quod sī, quod nisi, for "but if," "and if," or "if not," where the quod is really accusative of specification.
- 452. The Latin expresses "such is my, your," etc., and "so-called," by a relative, as follows:—

Quae tua est prūdentia, such is your discretion; $s\bar{\imath}$ mihš negōtium permīsissēs, quī meus in tē amor est, cōnfēcissem, if you had entrusted the business to me, I should have accomplished it, such is my love for you; vestra quae $d\bar{\imath}citur*v\bar{\imath}ta$, your so-called life.

453. The difference between Latin and English use should be observed in relative clauses like the following:—

Thrasybūlō corōna ā populō data est, quam quod amor

* In this use the relative clause is usually thus inserted between an attributive and its noun.



cīvium dēderat nūllam habuit invidiam, a wreath was given by the people to Thrasybulus which caused no envy because the love of his countrymen had given it; adsentior Platōnī quem tū quantī faciās sciō, I agree with Plato, and I know how highly you esteem him; nōn satis polītus es eīs artibus, quās quī tenent ērudītī appellantur, you are not well enough perfected in those branches which cause their possessors to be called educated.

Indefinite Pronouns.

The following points in the use of the indefinite pronouns should be noted:—

454. Quisquam is the most general of the indefinite pronouns, and means "anybody at all." Quīvīs and quīlibet are nearly as indefinite, meaning "any one you please." Thus:—

Quamdiū quisquam erit, quī tē dēfendere audeat, vīvēs, as long as there shall be anybody who will venture to defend you, you shall live (Cic., Cat., i., 2, 6); sī quisquam est timidus in māgnīs perīculōsīsque rēbus, is egō sum, if any one is timid in great and dangerous things, I am he (Cic., Fam., vi., 14, 1); cuivīs potest accidere quod cuiquam potest, what can happen to anybody at all, can happen to anybody you will (i. e., to everybody) (Sen., Tr., 11, 6); omnia sunt ēiusmodī quīvīs ut perspicere possit, all are of such a nature that any one you please can understand them (Cic.); hīc apud māiōrēs nostrōs adhibēbātur perītus, nunc quīlibet, in such a case an expert used to be employed in the time of our ancestors, now any one at all [will do] (Cic.); nōn cuivīs hominī contingit, it does not fall to every man's good fortune (Hor.).

a. Sometimes the verb part of $qu\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}s$ and $qu\bar{\imath}libet$ is inflected. Thus:—

Dominus $v\bar{\imath}n\bar{o}$ quid volet faciet, the master will do whatever he likes with the wine (Catō, R. R., 47 and 48, 2); facile cui vellēs tuam causam probārēs, you could have proved
your case to any one you wished (Cic., Verr., iv., 12, 28).

455. (1.) Quisquam, with the corresponding adjective $\bar{u}llus$, is used especially in negative sentences, or sentences implying a negation. Thus:—

Neque ex castrīs Catilīnae quisquam omnium dīscēsserat, nor had any one at all deserted from Catiline's camp (Cic.); nec ūllō cāsū potest contingere ut ūlla intermīssio fīat officī, nor can it by any chance happen that there be any interruption of the obligation of duty (Cic.); an quisquam potest sine perturbātiōne mentis īrāscī? or can any one indulge in anger without disturbance of his mental equipoise? (Cic., Tūsc., iv., 24, 54); taetrior hīc tyrannus Syrācūsānīs fuit quam quisquam superiōrum, this tyrant was more loathsome to the people of Syracuse than any of his predecessors (Cic.).

- a. Instead of $n\bar{o}n$ quisquam, unless the pronoun is rather emphatic, $n\bar{e}m\bar{o}$ or nihil is used, and similarly $n\bar{u}llus$ instead of $n\bar{o}n$ $\bar{u}llus$. $N\bar{u}llus$, besides its adjective use, supplies the place of the genitive and ablative singular and the plural of $n\bar{e}m\bar{o}$, and the cases of nihil other than nominative and accusative singular.*
- b. $N\bar{e}m\bar{o}$ is used, not $n\bar{u}llus$, with adjectives used as substantives; as, $n\bar{e}m\bar{o}$ $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}nus$, no Roman.
- 456. Quis $(qu\bar{\imath})$ is the unemphatic "any," "one," and is used chiefly after $s\bar{\imath}$, nisi, $n\bar{e}$, num, and the pronouns, as $qu\bar{o}$, $quant\bar{o}$, etc. Thus:—

Sī quis $m\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}tur$, if any one wonders; num quis $h\bar{o}c$ $n\bar{e}scit$? does not every one know this? $i\bar{u}stitiae$ $pr\bar{\imath}mum$ $m\bar{u}nus$ est ut $n\bar{e}$ cui quis noceat, the first injunction of justice is that one shall harm no one; $d\bar{e}trahere$ quid $d\bar{e}$ aliquo, to take away something from somebody.

- a. After $s\bar{\imath}$, nisi, $n\bar{e}$, num, the forms quis and $qu\bar{\imath}$ are used indifferently as substantives or adjectives; otherwise, as with the interrogative pronoun, quis is substantive, $qu\bar{\imath}$, adjective.
- 457. Aliquis, some one or other, any one, is less indefinite than quis, as is seen especially after $s\bar{\imath}$, nisi, $n\bar{e}$, etc. Thus:—

Sī est aliquī sēnsus in morte praeclārōrum virōrum, if * There is, however, also a declined form of nihil. (Cf. 137, 1, a.)

illustrious men have some consciousness when dead (Cic., Sēst., 62, 131); timēbat Pompēius omnia nē aliquid vos timērētis, Pompey watched all things with anxiety that you might have no anxiety (Cic.).

a. Aliquis is especially common in the emphatic meaning some at least. Thus:—

Est hoc aliquid, tamets non est satis, this is something at least, although it is not enough (Cic., Caec., 15, 47); mult sine doctrina aliquid omnium generum et artium consequentur, many without teaching acquire something in all branches of learning (Cic.).

458. Quispiam, some one, is more definite than aliquis. Thus:—

 $H\bar{e}r\bar{e}dit\bar{a}s$ est $pec\bar{u}nia$, quae morte alicuius ad quempiam pervenit $i\bar{u}re$, an inheritance is money which at some one's death comes to a person legally (Cic.); quaeret fortasse quispiam, some one will perhaps ask.

459. Quīdam, some particular one, is the most definite of these pronouns, and implies that a person or thing is definitely known, though indefinitely described. Thus:—

Quīdam dē conlēgīs nostrīs, one of my colleagues (Cic.); scīs mē quōdam tempore Metapontum vēnisse tēcum, you know that at a certain time I went with you to Metapontum (Cic.).

a. Quādam often expresses what in English is denoted by "a sort of;" as:—

 $M\bar{\imath}lv\bar{o}$ est quoddam bellum $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}r\bar{a}le$ cum corv \bar{o} , the kite has a sort of natural antagonism toward the crow (Cic., N. D., ii., 49, 125).

460. When only two persons or things are referred to, the following pronouns are used:—

alter, the other. uter? which? neuter, neither. uterque, both.

Corresponding to the following, if more than two are referred to:—

alius, another.quis? who? $n\bar{e}m\bar{o}$, $n\bar{u}llus$, none.quisque, each.

a. $Amb\bar{o}$ is used for "both" only when the thing said applies in the same way to the two objects; otherwise uterque is used; as:—

Caesar atque Pompēius dīversa sibi ambō consilia capiunt . . . eodemque die uterque eorum ex castrīs exercitum edūcunt, Caesar and Pompey both adopt different plans, . . . but on the same day both lead out their armies from camp (Caes., B. C., iii., 30).

- b. Alter is used for the English "one's neighbor;" as: Nihil alterīus causā facere, to do nothing for one's neighhor's sake.
 - c. The following distinctions should be observed: -

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alter = the other; alteri = the other party.
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alius = another; $ali\bar{i}$ = others.

 $c\bar{e}ter\bar{i}$ = all the others, the rest.

alteruter = one or the other.

Cf. also 449, 2.

d. For the convenience of the pupil the following series of the words for number is given:—

 $pauc\bar{\imath}$ = a few, only a few.

aliquot = some, not many, several.

 $n\bar{o}nn\bar{u}ll\bar{\iota}$ = some (indeterminate). $pl\bar{u}r\bar{e}s$ = several, rather many.

 $mult\bar{i} = many.$

 $pl\bar{u}rim\bar{i}$ = very many.

 $pl\bar{e}r\bar{i}que$ = most.

 $\bar{u}nusquisque = each and all.$

SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

Tenses.

- 461. The IMPERFECT, PRESENT, and FUTURE mark an action or event simply as taking place (beginning or continuing) in the PRESENT, PAST, or FUTURE respectively.
- 462. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and future Perfect mark an action or event as COMPLETED.

- (1.) The PERFECT marks something as completed either (a) in the PRESENT (perfect DEFINITE) or (b) in the INDEFINITE PAST (i. e., without reference to any other event HISTORICAL perfect or AORIST).* Thus:—
- (a.) [$N\bar{a}t\bar{u}ra$] oculos membr $\bar{a}n\bar{i}s$ tenuissim $\bar{i}s$ vest $\bar{i}v$ it et saepsit, nature has clothed and protected the eye with a very delicate membrane (Cic., N. D., ii., 57, 142).
- (b.) Ita tantum bellum . . . extrēmā hieme adparāvit, ineunte vēre sūscēpit, mediā aestāte confēcit, thus he got ready for this great war in the last part of winter, entered upon it at the beginning of spring, and finished it in mid-summer (Cic., Lēg. Mān., 12, 35).
- (2.) The PLUPERFECT marks something as completed at or before the beginning of some other PAST action or event. Thus:—

Pyrrhī temporibus iam Apollō versūs facere dēsierat, in the time of Pyrrhus Apollo had already ceased to give oracles (Cic., Dīv., ii., 56, 116).

(3.) The FUTURE PERFECT marks something as completed at or before the time of some other FUTURE action or event. Thus:—

Cum tū haec legēs, egŏ Caesarem fortasse convēnerō, when you are reading this I shall perhaps have met Caesar.

The following points in the use of the tenses deserve special mention: —

463. Statements which are true of all time, and have therefore a special interest in the present, such as general truths, are expressed by the present tense. Thus:—

Labor omnia vincit, labor conquers all things.

- a. Sometimes a general statement, instead of being thus directly stated by the present, is implied by a perfect (on the principle that what has often happened is the natural thing to
- * The pupil should perhaps be warned that the Romans did not feel this difference as we feel it. Otherwise, they would probably have expressed it by a difference of form.

expect). The perfect in this use is sometimes called the GNOMIC perfect, but the general nature of the tense in these cases is so evidently perfect that a special name seems undesirable. Thus:—

Avāritia pecūniae studium habet, quam nēmō sapiēns concupīvit, greed involves a zeal for money which no wise man desires * (Sall., Cat., 11, 3); ob dēbilitātem animī multī parentēs, multī amīcōs nōnnullī patriam, plērīque autem sē ipsōs penitus perdidērunt, through weakness of mind many utterly ruin their parents, many their friends, some their country, and most people themselves (Cic., $F\bar{\imath}n.$, i., 15, 49); nōn domus et fundus, nōn aeris acervus et aurī aegrōtō dominō dēdūxit corpore febrēs, nōn animō cūrās, not houses and lands nor heaps of coin take away disease from the ailing body of their owner or care from his mind (Hor., Epist., i., 2, 47).

464. The present and imperfect are often used of repeated or customary actions, and of attempted or intended actions. Thus:—

Cottīdiē in senātum venit Catilīna, Catiline comes daily to the Senate; haec audiēbant anteā, nunc vident, they used to hear these things before, now they see them; in exsilium ēiciēbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum vidēbam? was I trying to drive into exile a man who I saw had already actually entered upon war? (Cic., Cat., ii., 6, 14).

465. The present is used in giving the statements of past writers whose works are still extant; as:—

Homērus dīcit ē Nestoris linguā melle dulciōrem flūxisse sermōnem, Homer says that from Nestor's tongue flowed speech sweeter than honey.

466. The present is sometimes used instead of the historical perfect in lively narration, to make a more vivid picture (HISTORICAL present). Thus:—

Desiliunt ex equis, provolant in primum, they spring from their horses, they fly to the front (Liv., iii., 62, 8).

* I. e., none ever has desired, and therefore we may infer that none ever will do so.

467. With iam dūdum, iam diū, iam prīdem, and sometimes without these words, the present and imperfect are used, where in English the perfect and pluperfect are preferred, to indicate an action which has been going on some time and is still going on (PRESENT), or which at a certain past time had been and was still going on (IMPERFECT). Thus:—

Iam diū īgnōrō quid agās, I have long been in ignorance as to how you are; tot annōs bellum gerō, all these years I have been waging war; audiēbat iam dūdum verba, he had heard the words for some time.

468. With dum (="while") the present is regularly used to denote an action going on at the same time as another, even when the two actions belong to past time.

Thus: —

Dum egő in Siciliā sum, nūlla statua dēiecta est, while I was in Sicily not a statue was overthrown (Cic., Verr., ii., 66, 161).

NOTE. In the meanings "until" and "as long as," dum takes the past tenses for past actions. Also in the meaning "while," if the main verb denotes a continued action or state (often in Livy and once or twice earlier).

469. With postquam (posteāquam), "after," and with the expressions for "as soon as"—ubī, ubī prīmum, ut, ut prīmum, cum prīmum, simul āc (simul atque or simul alone),—the perfect is the regular tense, though the pluperfect would seem more logically exact. Thus:—

Sed postquam aspexī, $\bar{\imath}lic\bar{o}$ $c\bar{o}gn\bar{o}v\bar{\imath}$, but after I looked at [it] I recognized it at once (Ter., Heaut., iv., 1, 43); Pompēius, ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit, aciē excēssit, as soon as Pompey saw his cavalry routed he withdrew from battle (Caes., B. C., iii., 94); cum prīmum $R\bar{o}mam$ vēnī, nihil prius faciendum mihž putāvī, quam ut tibž grātulārer, as soon as I (had) reached Rome, I thought it my first duty to tender you my congratulations.

a. But the imperfect is used if a situation is to be described as a continued action; the pluperfect, if as the result of an action; as: —

Ut domum redücēbātur, fit obviam eī C. Cūriō, when he was being escorted home, Gaius Curio met him; ut ad mare excubuerant, accēssēre hostēs, as soon as they had got their guard posted, the enemy drew near.

b. Or if a distinct interval of time has elapsed between the event introduced by *postquam* and the main event, the clause with *postquam* regularly takes the pluperfect; as:—

Hannibal annō tertiō postquam domō profūgerat cum quīnque nāvibus Āfricam accēssit, in the third year after he had gone into exile, Hannibal went to Africa with five ships (Nep., Han., 8).

Cf. the English use of tenses with "after" and "as soon as."

- 470. Other cases where a different tense is used in Latin from the one which English would lead us to expect are as follows:—
- (1.) In letters sometimes an imperfect (or historical perfect) is used for the present, or a pluperfect for a perfect. The writer thus puts himself at the time when the letter will be read (EPISTOLARY imperfect and pluperfect). Thus:—

Nihil habēbam quod scrīberem; neque enim novī quicquam audīveram, I have nothing to write, for I have heard nothing new.

(2.) A perfect or pluperfect is used in dependent clauses (especially with cum, $s\bar{\imath}$, etc.) indicating a customary action or event, where English usage would lead us to expect a present or imperfect.* Thus:—

Cum ad vīllam vēnī, hoc ipsum nihil agere et plānē cēssāre mē dēlectat, when I come to my country seat, this very doing nothing and absolutely resting delight me (Cic., Ōr., 2, 6); cum rosam vīderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur, whenever he saw a rose, he thought spring was beginning (Cic., Verr., v., 10, 27).

- (3.) In subordinate clauses depending on a past tense and stating something which was true at the time mentioned and is
- * The present or imperfect in the main clause shows the repetition of the act, and the subordinate clause is regarded more directly from the time of the main clause than in English.

still true, the imperfect is sometimes used where the present might be expected. Thus:—

Pāstum animantibus largē et copiosē nātūra eum quī cuique aptus erat comparāvit, nature generously and abundantly prepared for the animals that food which was suited to each (Cic., N. D., ii., 47, 121); vidē, nē, cum omnēs rēctae animā adfectionēs virtūtēs adpellentur, non sit hoc proprium nomen omnium, sed ab eā, quae ūna cēterīs excellēbat, omnēs nominātae sint, see, lest, while all right dispositions of the mind are called virtues, this name does not properly belong to all, but all are named from the one which in itself surpasses all the others (Cic., Tūsc., ii., 18, 43).

(4.) The *imperfect* is sometimes used to express surprise at something just discovered, though it has been going on for some time; as:—

Eheu, pater $m\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{\imath}u$ $h\bar{\imath}c$ erās? ah! father, you here? Cf. also the pluperfect, haud aspexeram, I didn't see [you] (Ter., Ad., 373).

(5.) The *perfect* is sometimes used instead of a future perfect to indicate vividly what will happen if something else happens (as if it had already happened). Thus:—

[$Br\bar{u}tus$] $s\bar{\imath}$ conservatus erit, vīcimus, if Brutus shall be saved, we have conquered (Cic., Fam., xii., 6, 2).

471. The *perfect* is sometimes used to express what has been the case, but is so no longer. Thus:—

Fuimus $Tr\bar{o}es$, we are no longer Trojans (Verg., Aen., ii., 325); $tr\bar{s}ste$ enim est nomen ipsum carendo quia subicitur haec $v\bar{s}s$: habuit non habet, for the very word "deprivation" is melancholy, because the meaning "had but has no longer" underlies it (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 36, 87).

a. In a few verbs the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect have acquired the meaning of the present, imperfect, and future of a kindred verb. Thus: $n\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$, find out; $n\bar{o}v\bar{\imath}$, know (i. e., have found out). So $\bar{o}d\bar{\imath} = I$ hate, $memin\bar{\imath} = I$ remember.

NOTE. The tenses in Latin are used in general with much greater exactness than in English, and the Romans were particularly fond of the future perfect tense.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Note. In its original shape in the Indo-European the subjunctive seems to have been a tense rather than a mood, having about the meaning indicated by the English "am going to." This meaning soon broadened so as to include that kind of indeterminate futurity involved in the ideas which we express by "may," "could," "would," etc. It is this quality in the mood as we find it in Latin which explains the absence of special future tense forms,* and which is also at the bottom of the distinction which grew up between the subjunctive and the indicative; namely, that while the indicative represents a thing as a fact of the past, present, or future, the subjunctive came to mark a thing as something conceived in the mind merely (i. e., as something which might or would be a fact, if the thinker's idea should be realized). This notion of indeterminate futurity is more or less distinctly traceable in the four uses of the subjunctive in Independent Sentences. (See 472-475.)

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

Hortatory Subjunctive.

- 472. The HORTATORY subjunctive expresses (1) an EXHORTATION or ENTREATY; (2) a COMMAND or PROHIBITION; (3) an OBLIGATION; (4) a CONCESSION. The negative is $n\bar{e}$. Thus:—
- (1.) Meminerimus etiam adversus īnfimōs iūstitiam esse servandam, let us remember that justice must be observed even towards the humblest (Cic., Off., i., 13, 41).
- (2.) Vīribus ūtāre, dum adsint, cum absint, nē requīrās, use your strength while it lasts, but when it is gone do not pine for it (Cic., Sen., 10, 33); suum quisque nēscat ingenium, let every one study his own temperament; dēnīs impiī nē plācāre audeant deēs, let not the impious venture to try to propitiate
- * If it was desirable to guard against a possible ambiguity, or to emphasize distinctly the notion of futurity, the Romans used periphrastic forms (facturus sim, essem, etc.).

the gods with gifts (Cic.); nihil incommodo valētūdinis tuae fēceris, do nothing prejudicial to your health (Cic.).

- (3.) Ut homost, ita morem gerās, you must regulate your conduct by the character of your master (i. e., like master, like man) (Ter., Ad., 431); quae hīc erant, cūrārēs, you should have looked out for what were here (Ter., Hec., 230); nē poposcissēs, you should not have asked (Cic., Att., ii., 1, 3).
- (4.) Sed ierit ad bellum, dissēnserit non ā tē solum, vērum etiam ā frātribus: hī tē orant tuī, but grant that he went to the war, that he took the other side not only from you but also from his brothers: they and they were on your side beg you [to spare him] (Cic., Lig., 12, 35); nō sint in senectūte vīrēs: nē postulantur quidem vīrēs ā senectūte, suppose there is no strength in old age: neither is strength demanded from old age (Cic., Sen., 11, 34); deciēs centēna dedissēs huic parcō paucīs contentō, suppose you had given this frugal fellow whose wants are few some million or so (Hor., Sat., i., 3, 15).
- a. The singular of the second person of the present tense is not used, until after Livy's time, for commands, exhortations, or prohibitions, unless the subject is indefinite (i. e., "you" = "any one"). (Cf. the examples.)
- b. In the perfect tense the second person is used in commands and exhortations only when they are negative (i. e., when they are really prohibitions). The imperative is used for positive commands, etc. (See 527.)
- c. The perfect and pluperfect differ from the present and imperfect respectively only in the greater precision which comes from the notion of *completed* action, but even this distinction in the case of the present and perfect is almost intangibly subtle.
- d. Commands, exhortations, entreaties, and prohibitions naturally occur only in the primary tenses (present and perfect).

Optative Subjunctive.

473. The OPTATIVE subjunctive is used to express a wish, sometimes alone, sometimes with utinam or ut, "O that!" The negative is nē. Thus:—

Valeant $c\bar{\imath}v\bar{e}s$ $me\bar{\imath}$, sint $incolum\bar{e}s$, sint $be\bar{u}t\bar{\imath}$, may my countrymen prosper in safety and happiness (Cic., Mil., 34, 93); $n\bar{e}$ v $\bar{\imath}vam$ $s\bar{\imath}$ $sci\bar{o}$, may I die, if I know (Cic., Att., iv., 16); falsus utinam $v\bar{a}t\bar{e}s$ sim, oh, may I prove mistaken in my prophecy! (L $\bar{\imath}v.$, xxi., 10, 10); utinam P. $Cl\bar{o}dius$ v $\bar{\imath}veret$, would that Publius Clodius were living! (Cic., Mil., 38, 103); utinam $m\bar{e}$ mortuum v $\bar{\imath}diss\bar{e}s$, would that you had seen me dead (Cic., Q. Fr., i., 3, 1).

- a. The present and perfect imply nothing as to the fulfillment of the wish, but the perfect is chiefly confined to early Latin and the poets. The imperfect implies the non-fulfillment of the wish in present time, the pluperfect in past time.
- b. Utinam or ut is almost always used when the tense is imperfect or pluperfect. These particles tend to give more formality or solemnity to the expression of the wish.
- c. Sometimes instead of the simple subjunctive, velim, nollim, malim, vellem, nollem, mallem, or cuperem, is used with the substance of the wish added in the infinitive or subjunctive. Thus:—

Tuam mihř darī velim, Cotta, ēloquentiam, I wish your eloquence might be given me, Cotta (Cic., N. D., ii., 59, 147); vellem adesse posset Panaetius, would that Panaetius could be here now.

Note. Here velim, nollem, etc., are potential subjunctives (see 474). For the dependent subjunctive (like posset in the second example), see 491.

Potential Subjunctive.

474. The POTENTIAL subjunctive is used to express the shades of *possibility* and kindred ideas indicated in English by an unemphatic "may," "might," "can," "could," or "would." The negative is $n\bar{o}n$ (haud, etc.). Thus:—

Hīc quaerat quispiam, at this point some one may ask (Cic., N. D., ii., 53, 133); Platōnem nec nimis valdē nec nimis saepe laudāveris, you cannot [could not] praise Plato too highly or too often (Cic., Lēgg., iii., 1, 1); hŏc sine ūllā dubitātiōne

confirmaverim $\bar{e}loquentiam$ rem esse omnium difficillimam, this I would venture to assert without any hesitation, that eloquence is the hardest thing in the world [to acquire] (Cic., $Br\bar{u}t.$, 6, 25); itaque haud facile discerneres utrum $imper\bar{u}t\bar{v}r\bar{u}$ an exercitu \bar{v} carior esset, therefore you could not easily tell whether he [Hannibal] was dearer to the general or to the army (Liv., xxi., 4, 3); $n\bar{u}lla$ profecto alia gens $tant\bar{u}$ $m\bar{o}le$ $cl\bar{u}dis$ non obruta esset, any other nation would have been buried beneath such a mass of disaster (Liv., xxii., 54, 10).

- a. The primary tenses are used when the situation referred to is present, the secondary tenses when a past situation is involved. The distinction between the perfect and pluperfect on the one hand and the present and imperfect on the other is the same as in the hortatory use of the subjunctive. (See 472, c.)
- b. The potential subjunctive is often used to put a statement mildly for courtesy's sake, and is then called by the special name Subiūnctīvus modestiae. Thus:—

Pāce tuā, patria, dīxerim, with your permission, O my country, I would say (Cic., Mil., 38, 103); haud sciam an, I could not tell whether (Cic., Tūsc., iii., 24, 55). Cf. also the third example, above (cōnfīrmāverim).

c. The second person singular of a general subject ("you" = "one," "anybody") is especially common: as: —

Quem neque gloria neque per cula excitant, nequiquam hortere. him, whom neither glory nor danger rouses, you will exhort in vain (Sall., Cat., 58, 2). Cf. also the second example, above (laudāveris).

d. If the potential idea is to be brought out emphatically, the verbs possum, can, and licet, may, are used. With these and similar verbs, as dēbeō, oportet, etc., and with adjectives of like meaning used with sum, sometimes also others, the indicative is often used where a potential subjunctive might be expected. The potential idea is here sufficiently indicated by the meaning of the word used. Thus:—

Perturbātionēs animorum poteram morbos appellāre, sed non convenīret ad omnia, I might call disturbances of the soul

diseases, but [the word] would not apply to all cases (Cic., Fīn., iii., 10, 35); quantō melius fuerat, in hōc prōmīssum patris nōn esse servātum, how much better it would have been in this case for the father's promise not to have been kept (Cic., Off., iii., 25, 94); fuit tantī, mihǐ crēde; habērēs quod dēfenderēs, it would have been worth the price, believe me; you would have some defense; possum persequī permulta oblectāmenta rērum rūsticārum, sed ea ipsa, quae dīxī, sentiō fuisse longiōra, I might tell of very many delights of farming, but I feel that what I have said has itself been rather long (Cic., Sen., 16, 55); longum est ea dīcere; sed hōc breve dīcam, it were a long task to say that, but this I will say briefly (Cic., Sēst., 5, 12).

NOTE. The present indicative is thus often used where in English the past potential is preferred, as in the last two examples.

Dubitative Subjunctive.

475. The DUBITATIVE subjunctive is used to put a question for rhetorical effect, where no answer is expected. Thus:—

Quid faciam, what can I do? (Hor., Sat., ii., 1, 24); quid facerem, what could I do? (Verg., Ec., i., 40); quid hōc homine faciātis, what would you do with such a man? sed quaerō ā tē, cūr C. Cornēlium nōn dēfenderem, but I ask you, why should I not have undertaken the defense of Gaius Cornelius? (Cic., Vat., 2, 5); egŏ tē vidēre nōluerim, I unwilling to see you?

a. The present (or future) applies to a present situation, the imperfect and (rare) perfect to a past situation. Furthermore, in questions in positive form the present implies doubt simply, the imperfect implies that no other course than the one adopted was natural or possible. Questions in negative form imply that the doubt suggested is too preposterous to consider. (Cf. the examples.)

Note. The potential and dubitative subjunctives may, of course, occur in dependent clauses, especially in indirect questions. Thus:—

Hōc spatiō plūra facinora in sē victī ēdidērunt quam înfēstī edidissent victōrēs, during this time the conquered performed more hostile acts against

themselves than angry conquerors would have done (Līv., xxxi., 18, 8); pudet; nec quid agam neque quid huic respondeam sciō, I am ashamed, and know not what to do or what answer to give him (Ter., Ad., 485)

Cf. also the Constructions of Indirect Discourse, **514** ff. For Concessive Dependent Clauses see **478–480**.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Conditional Sentences.

NOTE. The clause containing the condition proper (i. e., the "if" clause) is called the PROTASIS, the other clause the APODOSIS or conclusion.

- 476. (1.) The INDICATIVE is used in conditional sentences to denote what is, was, or will be true, if something else is, was, or shall be true.
- (2.) The SUBJUNCTIVE is used in conditional sentences to denote what would be or would have been true, if something else were, should be, or had been true.
- a. With the indicative, therefore, the supposed case is treated as a fact, as to the existence of which the speaker or writer is uncertain; with the primary tenses of the subjunctive the supposed case is treated as something merely assumed for argument; with the secondary tenses of the subjunctive the supposed case is treated as not a fact.
- b. The perfect subjunctive differs from the present only in marking completed action. The imperfect refers to present time or to a state or continued action in the past; the pluperfect to past time.

NOTE. The indicative implies nothing as to the reality of the protasis, but ASSERTS the reality of the apodosis, if the reality of the protasis be granted. The primary tenses of the subjunctive, in representing the case as merely assumed, hint that it is not actual, but indicate nothing as to its probability or even possibility, except that in so far as they involve a reference to the future they do not mark the case as distinctly impossible. The secondary tenses of the subjunctive mark the case distinctly as not actual, and are the only tenses that can be used when the supposed case is impossible, although they do not themselves mark it as impossible or even improbable. Thus:—

477. INDICATIVE.

Sī id facis, hodiē postrēmum mē vidēs, if this is what you are doing you see me today for the last time (Ter., And., 322).

Quid? sī tyrannidem occupūre, sī patriam prōdere cōnābitur pater, silēbitne fīlius? again, if a father attempt to make himself ruler unconstitutionally, if he try to betray his country, will the son keep silent about it? (Cic., Off., iii., 23, 90).

Sī mihř bonā rē pūblicā fruī nōn licuerit, at carēbō malā, if I may not enjoy a good government I shall at least not live under a bad one (Cic., Mil., 34, 93).

Rationem antiqui philosophi sententiae suae non fere reddebant, nisi quid erat numeris aut descriptionibus explicandum, the philosophers of old were not in the habit of giving an account of their opinions unless they had to explain something by arithmetic or geometry (Cic., Tūsc., i., 17, 38).

Sīc agam: sī quid vēnāle habuit Hēius, sī id, quantī aestimābat, tantī vendidit, dēsinō quaerere cūr ēmeris,

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Egő sī Scīpiōnis dēsīderiō mē movērī negem, mentiar, if I should say that I was not affected by a longing for Scipio, I should lie (Cic., Am., 3, 10).

Sī gladium quis apud tē sānā mente dēposuerit, repetat īnsānīēns, reddere peccātum sit, if anybody should, being in sound mind, put a sword into your keeping and demand it in a fit of insanity, it would be wrong to return it (Cic., Off., iii., 25, 95).

Sī aut collēgam, id quod māllem, tuī similem, L. Aemilī, habērēs, aut tū collēgae tuī essēs similis, supervacānea esset ōrātiō mea, if you had, as I should prefer, a colleague like yourself, Lucius Aemilius, or if you were like your colleague, my words would be superfluous (Līv., xxii., 39, 1).

Nunc quemadmodum audiar sentiō, at tum sī dīcerem, nōn audīrer, I see how attentively I am listened to now, but if I had spoken then I should not have been listened to (Cic., Clu., 29, 80).

Sī Metellī fideī diffīsus essem. iūdicem eum nōn retinuissem, if I had distrusted

I will put it in this way: if Heius had anything to sell. and if he sold it for as much as he asked, I stop inquiring why you bought it (Cic., Verr., iv., 5, 10).

Vel officio, sī quid dēbuerat, vel errorī, sī quid nēscierat, satisfactum esse dūxit, he thought he had met all the demands of allegiance if he had owed any, and had made good his error if through ignorance he had made any (Cic., Dēiot., 5, 13).

the honor of Metellus, I should not have retained him upon the jury (cf. Cic., Verr., Act 1, 31).

Ergō egð nisi peperissem, Rōma nōn oppūgnāretur; nisi fīlium habērem, lībera in līberā patriā mortua essem, therefore, if I had not been a mother, Rome would not be under siege; if I did not have a son, I should have died in freedom in a free country (Līv., ii., 40).

a. The idea of non-fulfillment is not inherent in the secondary tenses of the subjunctive themselves. This idea comes from the feeling that the past is settled and irrevocable, and thus when a supposed case is referred to the past there is a much stronger feeling that the real state of the case was different than when a supposed case is referred to the present or future. It occasionally happens, however, that a supposition is thrown into the past without any implication as to its fulfillment, and then the secondary tenses of the subjunctive are still used in Latin. Thus:—

SI conlibuisset, ab $\bar{v}v\bar{v}$ \bar{u} sque ad $m\bar{u}$ la citaret " $i\bar{v}$ Bacchae," if the fancy had seized him, he would shout "Ho! Bacchants," till he dropped * (Hor., Sat., i., 3, 6).

b. The distinction between the primary and secondary tenses as to the implication of non-fulfillment had not yet become fully established in the times of Plautus and Terence, and the present in their plays sometimes occurs of unfulfilled conditions. Thus:—

For the much commoner occurrence of this use in Indirect Discourse (real or implied), see 516.

[•] Literally, from the egg to the apples, i. e., from beginning to end. Cf., in English, "from the soup to the fruit course."

Adsum: nam sī absim, haud recūsem, quīn mihi male sit, mel meum, I am here, for if I were away, I should make no objection to its going hard with me, my honey (Plaut., Curc., 164); $t\bar{u}$ sī $h\bar{\iota}c$ sīs, aliter sentiās, if you were in my shoes, you would feel differently (Ter., And., 310).

c. With verbs like possum, dēbeō, licet, etc., and other expressions which in themselves denote necessity, possibility, power, duty, and the like, the indicative (imperfect, perfect, or pluperfect) is regularly used in classical Latin in the apodoses of conditions contrary to fact, where with other verbs the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive is used. Thus:—

Quod esse caput dēbēbat, sī $prob\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ posset, and this ought to be the main point, if it could be proved [as it cannot] (Cic., $F\bar{\imath}n.$, iv., 23); sī $\bar{\imath}num$ diem morātī essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delayed a single day, all would have had to die; sī $mih\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{n}ndum$ aet $\bar{\imath}$ s $vac\bar{\imath}ti\bar{\imath}nem$ daret tamen aequum erat $m\bar{e}$ $d\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}tt\bar{\imath}$, if my age did not yet justify my exemption (as it does), yet it were just that I should be discharged.

Cf. also, under Potential Subjunctive, 474, d.

- d. General conditions (i. e., such as denote what repeatedly or always happens under certain circumstances) are expressed in Latin by the indicative, except in the two following cases:—
- (1.) The protasis has the subjunctive in the second person singular of the present when the subject is indefinite (i. e., "you" = "any one"), while in the other persons the indicative is employed, however general the application of the thing said. Thus:

"[$M\bar{e}ns$ quoque et animus,] nisi tamquam $l\bar{u}min\bar{\imath}$ oleum īnstīllēs, exstinguuntur senectūte, unless you drop oil into the lamp of the mind and soul, so to speak, their light goes out in old age (Cic., Sen., 11, 36); but, parv $\bar{\imath}$ sunt for $\bar{\imath}$ s arma, nisi est $c\bar{o}nsilium\ dom\bar{\imath}$, prowess of arms abroad is of little worth unless there be wisdom at home (Cic., Off., i., 22, 76).

(2.) If the general condition refers to the past, the protasis

has the imperfect (or pluperfect) subjunctive in the Augustan poets and later writers of both verse and prose, where the republican writers use the indicative. Thus:—

Accūsātōrēs, sī facultās incideret, poenīs adficiēbantur, the accusers were [in every case] visited with punishment, if opportunity offered (Tac., Ann., vi., 30); but, si quod erat grande vās aut māius opus inventum, laetī adferēbant, if any large vase or considerable work of art was found, they carried it to him [Verres] with joy (Cic., Verr., iv., 21, 47).

NOTE. The subjunctive in case (2) is a product of Greek influence. It will be seen that in both (1) and (2) the apodosis has the indicative. (Cf. also 508, and 510, 1.)

e. The protasis may be implied in some other form of expression. Thus:—

Rogēs $m\bar{e}$, $qu\bar{u}lem$ $n\bar{u}t\bar{u}ram$ $de\bar{v}rum$ esse $d\bar{u}cam$, nihil fortasse respondeam, ask me what I think the nature of the gods is, and I shall perhaps have no answer to make (Cic., N. D., i., 21, 57); nam absque to esset, $hodi\bar{e}$ numquam ad $s\bar{v}lem$ $occ\bar{a}sum$ $v\bar{v}verem$, for had it not been for you, I should never have lived to see the sun set to-day (Plaut., Menn., 1024); $n\bar{v}n$ $mih\bar{v}$, nisi admonit \bar{v} , $v\bar{v}$ nisset in mentem, I should not have thought [of it] unless reminded (Cic., $d\bar{e}$ \bar{v} r. ii., 42, 180); $n\bar{e}m\bar{v}$ umquam, sine magna spē immortalitātis, $s\bar{e}$ $pr\bar{v}$ $patri\bar{u}$ offerret ad mortem, no one would ever expose himself to death for his country without a great hope of immortal glory [such as he now has] (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 15, 32).

Note. In the development of language coördinate sentences were earlier than the subordinate constructions. This is well illustrated in such a sentence as the first example under e. It is but one step from roges me, nihil respondeam, to si me roges, nihil respondeam. The protasis in all subjunctive conditions was in this way developed from the hortatory subjunctive, while the apodosis grew from the potential use, the two being collateral offshoots from the original notion of indeterminate futurity.

f. So one form of expression may be used in the protasis, another in the apodosis; and shades of meaning are thus sometimes indicated, especially by the poets, which can hardly be retained in an English translation. Thus:—

Atque adeo, sī facere possim, pietās prohibet, and in fact filial affection prevents, supposing I could do it (Plaut., Ps., 290); cantus et ē currū Lūnam dēdūcere temptat, et faceret, sī non aera repulsa sonent, incantation tries to draw down the moon from her chariot, and would do it if the cymbals were not beaten till the echo [prevented] (Tib., i., 8, 21); sī volēbās participāri, auferrēs dīmidium domum, if you wanted to take a share, you might take half home (Pl., Truc., iv., 2, 55); mīrer, sī vāna vestra auctōritās ad plēbem est, I should wonder if your influence counts for nothing with the commons (Līv., iii., 21, 4); sī ipsa ratiō minus perficiet, ut mortem neglegere possīmus, at vīta ācta perficiat, ut satis superque vīxisse videāmur, if Reason herself does not make me indifferent to death, yet the experience of life would make me seem to have lived quite long enough (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 45, 109); $Fl\bar{a}v\bar{\imath}$, dēliciās tuās Catullo, nei sint inlepidae atque inēlegantēs, vellēs dīcere nec tacēre possēs, you would want to tell Catullus of your love, Flavius, and could not keep silent unless she be sordid and not very nice (Cat., 6, 1ff).

Concessive Clauses.

478. With $s\bar{i}$, $s\bar{i}$ $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$, $ets\bar{i}$, $tamets\bar{i}$, etiam $s\bar{i}$, concessive clauses take the indicative or subjunctive under precisely the same circumstances as conditional clauses with $s\bar{i}$. Thus:—

INDICATIVE.

In quibus sī moderātiō illa, quae in nostrīs solet esse cōnsulibus, nōn fuit, at fuit pompa, fuit speciēs, even if they had not that evenness of character which our consuls are wont to have, yet they had an impressive dignity of manner (Cic., Pīs., 11, 24).

Nam sī egŏ dīgna hāc con-

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sī haec non gesta audīrētis, sed pīcta vidērētis, tamen appārēret uter esset īnsidiātor, even if you were not listening to these things as events described, but were looking at them delineated in color, yet you could tell which was the one who laid the snare (Cic., Mil., 20, 54).

tumēliā sum māxumē, at tū indīgnus, quī facerēs tamen, for even though I deserve this insult ever so much, yet you were not the one to put it upon me (Ter., Eun., 865).

Caesar, etsī nōndum eōrum cōnsilia cōgnōverat, tamen ex eō, quod obsidēs dare intermīserant, fore id, quod accidit, sūspicābātur, although Caesar had not yet discovered their designs, yet from the fact that they had neglected to send the usual hostages, he began to suspect what proved to be the case (Caes., B. G., iv., 31).

Tametsī statim vīcisse dēbeō, tamen dē meō iūre dēcēdam, although an immediate victory is rightfully mine, I will retire from my right (Cic., Rōsc. Am., 27, 73).

Quod crebrō [quis] videt, $n\bar{o}n$ mīrātur, etiam sī $c\bar{u}r$ $f\bar{\iota}ut$ nēscit, what one sees frequently he does not marvel at, even if he does not know its cause (Cic., $D\bar{\imath}v.$, ii., 22, 49).

Etiam sī quid scribās nōn habēbis, scrībitō tamen, even though you (shall) have nothing to write, nevertheless write (Cic., Fam., xvi., 26, 2).

Nam ista vēritās etiam sī iūcunda non est, mihī tamen grāta est, for that truth, alNeque enim, sī māximē statuae dēiectae essent, eās egŏ vōbīs possem iacentēs ōstendere, for even if the statues were altogether scattered upon the ground, I could not show them to you, as they lay there (Cic., Verr., ii., 68, 164).

Etsī nihil aliud Sullae nisi cōnsulātum abstulissētis, tamen eō contentōs vōs esse oportēbat, though you had taken nothing else from Sulla than the consulship, yet you ought to be satisfied with that (Cic., Sull., 32, 90).

Sed tametsī iam ita cōnstituissēs, ut abesse perpetuō māllēs quam ea, quae nōllēs, vidēre, tamen id cōgitāre dēbērēs, but although you had already made up your mind to stay away forever rather than see what you would rather not see, yet you ought to bear this point in mind (Cic., Fam., iv., 7, 4).

Etiam sī nōbilitātum nōn sit, tamen honestum sit, quodque vērē dīcimus, etiam sī āu nūllō laudētur, nātūrā esse laudābile, even though it should not be stamped as noble, yet it would be worthy of respect and a thing which we truly call praiseworthy in its

though it is unpleasant, I am nature, even though no one yet glad to hear (Cic., Att., iii., should praise it (Cic., Off., i., 24, 2).

4, 14).

- 479. Concessive clauses are also introduced by *licet*, ut, quamvis, and quamquam. Of these:—
- 480. (1.) Clauses with *licet* or ut take the subjunctive.
- (2.) Clauses with quamquam take the indicative in classical Latin, the subjunctive later, while clauses with quamvīs take the subjunctive in classical Latin and the indicative later.* Thus:—

INDICATIVE.

Rōmānī, quamquam itinere et proeliō fessī erant, tamen Metellō īnstrūctī intentīque obviam prōcēdunt, although the Romans were weary with the march and the battle, yet they went forth against Metellus drawn up in good order and on the alert (Sall., Iug., 53, 5).

Quamquam in utrōque vestrum summum esse ingenium studiumque perspexī, tamen haec, quae sunt in speciē posita, in tē, Sulpicī, dīvīna sunt, although I have seen in both of you very great ability and zeal, yet in this matter of beauty of style you, Sulpicius, are divine (Cic., dē $\bar{O}r$., i., 29, 131).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sed omnia licet concurrant, Idūs Mārtiae cōnsō-lantur, but though all [horrors] should unite against me, yet the 15th of March is a consolation (Cic., Att., xiv., 4, 2).

Ut enim nēminem alium nisi T. Patinam familiāris-simum suum rogāsset, scīre potuit, for even though he had asked no one but his dear friend Titus Patina, he might have known (Cic., Mil., 17, 46).

Quamquam enim sint † in quibusdam malīs, tamen hoc nomen beātī longē et lātē patet, for though they may be in some misfortune, yet this word "happy" is one of far-

- * In very late Latin licet also is found with the indicative.
- † In this and the few other cases in which Cicero uses the subjunctive in a quamquam clause, the subjunctive is potential, and not influenced by the concessive character of the sentence. (Cf. the translation.)

Quamvīs est enim omnis hyperbolē ūltrā fīnem, nōn tamen esse dēbet ūltrā modum, for although all hyperbole means overstepping the line, yet it should not go beyond all bounds (Quīnt., viii., 6, 73). reaching import (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, v., 30, 85).

Quamvīs sīs molestus, nunquam tē esse cōnfitēbor malum, for although you are annoying, I will never admit that you are bad (Cic., Tūsc., ii., 25, 61).

Note. The concessive clauses with quamvis and ut are of hortatory origin, quamvis meaning "however much," and ut, "how;" licet is really an impersonal verb, and the subjunctive was at first a coördinate potential subjunctive (cf. 491); quamquam introduces regularly something granted to be a fact, and therefore naturally has the indicative.

a. Quamvīs, in its earlier meanings "however," "as much as you please," etc., is used to modify some particular adjective or adverb, and then has no effect upon the mood of the verb. Thus:—

Quasi $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$ mihř difficile sit, quamvīs multōs $n\bar{o}min\bar{a}tim$ $pr\bar{o}ferre$, just as if it would be hard for me to mention by name as many as you please (Cic., $R\bar{o}sc.$ Am., 16, 47); $doct\bar{o}rum$ est ista $c\bar{o}nsu\bar{e}t\bar{u}d\bar{o}$ eaque $Graec\bar{o}rum$, ut $e\bar{i}s$ $p\bar{o}n\bar{a}tur$ $d\bar{e}$ $qu\bar{o}$ disputent quamvīs $subit\bar{o}$, it is the professional philosophers, and that, too, Greek ones, who have that habit of letting a subject be proposed to them for discussion however suddenly (Cic., Am., 5, 17).

So, quamvis licet insectemur Stoicos metuo ne soli philosophi sint, for though we attack the Stoics as much as you please, I fear they are the only real philosophers (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, iv., 24, 53).

b. Quamquam and etsī, often, tametsī, rarely, are used with independent sentences to add a sort of correction to what has been said, as is done in English by "and yet." Thus:—

Quamquam quid opus est in hōc philosophārī, and yet, what need is there of philosophizing on this subject? (Cic., Tūsc., i., 37, 89); hārum duārum condiciōnum nunc utram mālīs vidē; etsī cōnsilium, quod cēpī, rēctum esse et tūtum

 $sci\bar{o}$, now see which of these two propositions you prefer; and yet the plan which I have formed I know is sound and safe. (Ter., Heaut., 327).

c. Etsī, quamquam, and quamvīs are used rarely in classical writers, but very commonly in Tacitus and the later authors (like "although" in English), with participles, etsī and quamquam also with adjectives, without any verb. Thus:—

Quā rē omnī ratione esse interdiū perrum pendum; etsī aliquō acceptō dētrīmentō, tamen summā exercitūs salvā locum, quem petant, capī posse, [that] therefore on all accounts they must break through by daylight, and although some loss might be experienced, yet with the main body of the army unhurt, the place they were making for could be taken (Caes., B. C., i., 67); lorīcam induit linteam, quamquam haud dissimulāns parum adversus tot mūcrones profutūram, he [Galba] put on a canvas breastplate, though perfectly well aware that it would be of little use against so many sword points (Suēt., Galba, 19); haec, mīra quamquam, fidem ex eō trahēbant, these things, wonderful though they were, induced belief from the fact (Tac., An., vi., 30); mēne non prīmum cum Pompēio, quālīcumque consilio suo, deinde cum bonīs esse, quamvīs causā temerē īnstitūtā, I not be, in the first place, on Pompey's side whatever his design, and afterwards on the right side, although they had not managed their course with discretion? (Cic., Att., ix., 6, 4).

For Concessive clauses with Relative Pronouns, see 500, 2, b.

" " Cum " 510, 2.

" Clauses of Proviso with Dum, Modo, etc., " 504.

Clauses with Particles of Comparison.

- 481. (1.) Clauses of comparison take the indicative when the comparison is simply stated as a fact.
- (2.) They take the subjunctive when the comparison is put as a supposed case. $S\bar{\imath}$ is then usually added to the particle of comparison; as, tamquam $s\bar{\imath}$, quasi, ut $s\bar{\imath}$, velut $s\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{a}c\ s\bar{\imath}$. Thus:—



INDICATIVE.

Illud tē hortor, ut, tamquam poētae bonī solent, sīc tū in extrēmā parte mūneris tuī dīligentissimus sīs, this I urge upon you: just as good poets are in the habit of doing, so do you exercise especial care in the last part of your task (Cic., Q. Fr., i., 1, 46).

Quasi pōma ex arboribus, crūda sī sunt, vix ēvelluntur, sī mātūra et cocta, dēcidunt, sīc vītam adulēscentibus vīs aufert, as fruit when unripe is torn with difficulty from its tree, but when it is fully ripe falls, so force is necessary to take away life from the young (Cic., Sen., 19, 71).

Est ita, ut dīcitur, it is as it is said to be.

Haec sicut exposui, ita gesta sunt, these things took place as I have set forth (Cic., Mil., 11, 30).

Ut $s\bar{e}mentem$ fēceris, ita $met\bar{e}s$, as thou sowest, so shalt thou reap (Cic., $d\bar{e}$ $\bar{O}r$., ii., 65, 261).

Longē alia $n\bar{o}b\bar{i}s$ $\bar{a}c$ $t\bar{u}$ scrīpserās $n\bar{u}ntiantur$, the accounts told me are far other than you wrote (Cic., Att., xi., 10, 2).

Pergrātum mihi fēceris, sī quemadmodum solēs dē cēterīs rēbus cum ex tē

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Vērum hominēs corruptī superbiā ita aetātem agunt, quasi vostrēs honērēs contemnant; ita hēs petunt, quasi honestē vīxerint, but men have become spoiled by arrogance and conduct themselves as if they scorned your offices, but sue for them as if they lived respectable lives (Sall., Iug., 85, 19).

Quī quasi sua rēs aut honōs agātur, ita dīligenter Sex. Naevī studiō et cupiditātī mōrem gerunt, who devote themselves to accomplishing the zealous and eager desires of Sextus Naevius with as much energy as if their own interests or honors were at stake (Cic., Quīnc., 2, 9).

Tantus patres metus de summā rērum cēpit, velut sī iam ad portās hostis esset, as great a fear for the government seized upon the senators as if the enemy were already at the gates (Līv., xxi., 16, 2).

At accūsat C. Cornēlī fīlius, et id aequē valēre dēbet, āc sī pater indicāret, but the son of Gaius Cornelius is the accuser, and that ought to have as much weight as if the father were giving testimony (Cic., Sull., 18, 51).

Tamquam clausa sit

quaeritur, sīc dē amīcitiā disputāris quid sentiās, I shall be very much obliged to you if you tell us what you think about friendship, in the same way you are wont to discuss other topics, when you are asked about them (Cic., Am., iv., 16). Asia, sīc nihil perfertur ad nōs, we fail to get any news as completely as if Asia were blockaded (Cic., Fam., xii., 9).

Ut si $bon\bar{o}$ anim \bar{o} fecissent $laud\bar{u}vit$ $c\bar{o}nsilium$ $e\bar{o}$ -rum, he [Agesilaus] praised their scheme, just as if they had acted with good intentions (Nep., $\bar{A}g\bar{e}s$., 6, 2).

a. In subjunctive clauses of comparison, if the supposed comparison applies to the present (or future), the primary tenses are used; if to the past, the secondary tenses. The perfect and pluperfect indicate, of course, completed action. Occasionally, however, the imperfect is used referring to present time, when the comparison involves something impossible or very unnatural, as in the fourth example above.

For Comparative Clauses with Quam = "than," see 498, and 516, e.

Clauses of Purpose (Pinal Clauses).

482. The SUBJUNCTIVE OF PURPOSE is introduced: —

(1.) By the conjunctions ut, that, and $n\bar{e}$, that not, lest (occasionally ut $n\bar{e}$). To connect two clauses of purpose $n\bar{e}ve$ (neu) is used for "and not" as well as "or not" "nor." Thus:—

Esse oportet ut vīvās; nōn vīvere ut edās, you must eat in order to live, not live in order to eat (Cornif., Heren., iv., 28, 39); nē qua ēius adventūs procul sīgnificātiō fīat, that no indication of his arrival may be made at a distance (Caes., B. G., vi., 29); excitanda est dīligentia, ut nē quid neglegenter agāmus, we must rouse up our energy so as to do nothing carelessly; ut vetera exempla relinquam, nēve eōrum aliquem quī vīvunt nōminem, to leave examples from old times and yet not name any of the living (Cic., Sēst., 47, 101).

(2.) By a relative pronoun or adverb; as, quī, unde, etc. Thus:—

Ea qui conficeret Gāium Trebonium lēgātum relinquit,

he leaves his lieutenant Gaius Trebonius to attend to these things (Caes., B. G., vii., 11); scrībēbat tamen ōrātiōnēs quās aliī dīcerent, yet he used to write speeches for others to deliver (Cic., Brūt., 56, 206); hominī nātūra ratiōnem dedit, quā regerentur animī adpetītūs, to man Nature has given reason, to govern the desires of the mind (cf. Cic., N. D., ii., 12, 34); quasi iam dīvīnārem, id quod accidit, illō exstīnctō, fore unde dīscerem nēminem, as if I already had a presentiment of what proved to be the case, that after his death there would be nobody from whom I could learn (for me to learn from) (Cic., Sen., 4, 12); habēbam quō cōnfugerem, I had a refuge to flee to (Cic., Fam., iv., 6, 2); locum, ubī cōnsistat reperīre nōn poterit, he will not be able to find a place in which to make a stand (Cic., Quīnc., 1, 5).

Note. Ut represents the purpose in a general way as the purpose of the action indicated by the main verb; the relative connects the purpose particularly with some word in the main clause. Thus: —

Clāvem cēpit ut iānuam reclūderet, he took the key to open the door. Clāvem cēpit quā iānuam reclūderet, he took the key to open the door with.

(3.) Especially by $qu\bar{o}$ (in the sense of $ut\ e\bar{o}$), if the purpose clause contains a comparative.* Thus:—

Invītant ad pūgnandum, quō fīunt ācriōrēs, they goad them on to battle, to make them the fiercer (Varr.); $l\bar{\imath}bert\bar{\imath}te$ $\bar{\imath}sus$ est, quō impūnius dicāx esset, he used his freedom to bluster the more safely (Cic., $Qu\bar{\imath}nc.$, 3, 11).

a. When the clause upon which the purpose clause depends stands first, it often contains some word or phrase like *ideō*, *idcircō*, *eō cōnsiliō*, *hōc animō*, to prepare the way for the purpose clause; as:—

Lēgibus dēnique idcircō omnēs servīmus, ut līberī esse possīmus, to the laws, in short, we are all slaves, but only on this account, namely, to secure the possibility of freedom (Cic., Clu., 53, 146); eō ad tē animō vēnimus, ut dē rē pūblicā

^{*} $Qu\bar{o}$ is very rarely used if there is no comparative, and, on the other hand, ut is occasionally used where there is a comparative.

esset *silentium*, with this purpose we have come to you, that we might cease thinking and talking about the government (Cic., $Br\bar{u}t.$, 3, 11).

- b. When the purpose belongs to the present (or future) the present subjunctive is used; when it belongs to the past, the imperfect is used. The perfect and pluperfect are in the nature of the case uncommon, representing a purpose as *completed* in the present or past respectively.
- c. But the clause of purpose sometimes depends upon an idea of saying implied, instead of upon the main verb of the sentence expressed. Thus:—

Sed ut hǐc, quī intervēnit, mē intuēns, nē īgnōret, quae rēs agātur, dē nātūrā agēbāmus deōrum, but that our friend who has just come in — and he glanced at me — may not be in the dark as to the subject of our discussion, we were discussing the divine nature (Cic., N. D., i., 7, 17). Nē īgnōret indicates the purpose of making the remark, not the purpose of the discussion.

d. Of similar character is the use of $n\bar{e}dum$ introducing a subjunctive clause where we say "not to mention," "still less," etc. Thus:—

Satrapa sī siet amātor numquam sufferre ēius sūmptūs queat, nēdum $t\bar{u}$ possīs, if her lover were a governor he could never stand her extravagance, still less can you (Ter., Heaut., 454).

NOTE. Ut, as well as qui, $ub\tilde{i}$, etc., is in origin a relative, so that all these clauses of purpose are really of the same nature. Their development may be illustrated thus:—

He sends a boy; he will or would say, (or) let him say.

He sends a boy who will say, (or) who is to say.

He sends a boy, that he may say, (or) to say.

The English exhibits the coördinate construction beside the subordinate in the expressions "come and see me," "come to see me."

For other constructions of purpose, see as follows: -

Gerunds and Gerundives: 551, and 552, 2.

Future Participle (rare): 545, a.

Supine (with verbs of motion): 554, 2.

(Poetical) Infinitive: 536.

parameter services

Clauses of Result (Consecutive Clauses).

- 483. The SUBJUNCTIVE OF RESULT is introduced: —
- (1.) By ut, that, ut $n\bar{o}n$, that not. Thus:

Non is es, Catilina, ut te pudor umquam a turpitudine revocărit, you are not such a person, Catiline, that shame has ever kept you from a base deed (cf. Cic., Cat., i., 9, 22); multīs gravibusque volneribus confectus, ut iam se sūstinēre non posset, worn out with many serious wounds, so that now he could no longer hold himself up (Caes., B. G., ii., 25).

(2.) By a relative pronoun or adverb, $qu\bar{\imath}$, etc. Thus:—

Nēmō est tam senex, quī sē annum nōn putet posse vīvere, no one is so old that he does not think he can live a year (Cic., Sen., 7, 24); quis tam fuit illō tempore ferreus, quī nōn illōrum aetāte; nōbilitāte, miseriā commovērētur, who was so iron-hearted then, that he was not influenced by their age, their high birth, and their pitiable condition? (Cic., Verr., v., 46, 121).

(3.) Especially by $qu\bar{\imath}n$ (equivalent to the nominatives $qu\bar{\imath}$, quae, quod, etc., with $n\bar{o}n$), when the main clause contains or implies a negative. Thus:—

Nūllast tam facilis rēs, quīn difficilis siet, quom invītus faciūs, nothing is so easy that it is not hard when you do it against your will (Ter., Heaut., 805); numquam accēdō, quīn abs tē abeam doctior, I never come to you without going away richer in knowledge.

- a. The clause of result is generally foreshadowed in the main clause by some word like ita, $s\bar{i}c$, tam, is, $t\bar{a}lis$, tantus, $ade\bar{o}$. (Cf. the examples.)
- b. When clauses which seem to be result clauses have $n\bar{e}$ or ut $n\bar{e}$, it is because the thing said is looked at rather as an intended effect (purpose) than as a result (accomplished effect). Thus:—

Utrōque tempore ita mē gessī nē tibš pudōrī, nē rēgnō tuō, nē gentī Macedonum essem, on both occasions I so conducted

myself as not to bring discredit upon you or your kingdom, or upon the Macedonians as a people [i. e., it was my aim not to, etc.] (Līv., xl., 15, 6).

Note. As in the case of purpose clauses, the relative clause of result is an earlier development than the ut clause. This development began as an independent apodosis with an implied protasis in some such fashion as this:—

This is a very simple thing: you would easily see it.

This thing is so simple: it is one which you would easily see.

This thing is so simple that you would easily see it.

This thing is so simple that it causes no trouble.*

Starting thus with the notion of indeterminate futurity inherent in the subjunctive, the result clause tends to pass from the *supposed* case to an *actual* case. In this process the subjunctive loses more and more of its modality, and gains correspondingly in definiteness of tense, so that:—

c. In pure result clauses, unlike the other dependent clauses thus far treated, the tenses of the subjunctive seem to acquire the same distinctness of temporal quality which the indicative has. This is especially true of the perfect subjunctive, as can be seen in examples like the following:—

Expulsus $r\bar{e}gn\bar{o}$ tandem aliquand \bar{o} , Mithridātēs tantum tamen consilio atque auctoritāte valuit ut sē $r\bar{e}ge$ Armeniorum adiūncto novis opibus copiūsque renovārit, driven at last out of his kingdom, Mithridates was still so effective with his schemes and influence that he renewed his means and troops by winning the king of the Armenians as an ally (Cic., $M\bar{u}r.$, 15, 33).

NOTE 1. How far the Romans were conscious of a substitution of tense force for mood force in such subjunctives it is perhaps impossible to tell. It may be that the perfect, through denoting completed action, differs in clauses of result from the imperfect in the same way that the English expressions "so that he did" and "so as to do" differ. Compare with the example just given the following from the same oration:—

Qui rēx, sibi aliquot annis sūmptis ad confirmandas rationes et copias i belli, tantum spē conātūque valuit, ut sē Ōceanum cum Ponto coniūnctūrum putāret, and this king, having taken several years to mature his plans

* Cf. J. B. Greenough's essay on *The Latin Subjunctive*, pp. 17 ff., and W. G. Hale's "Sequence of Tenses in Latin," *American Journal of Philology*, viii., 1, pp. 49 ff.

and strengthen his forces, found himself so powerful, in his hopes and ambitions, as to fancy that he was going to spread his sway from the Black Sea to the ocean (Cic., Mür., 15, 32).

In using the imperfect, the writer seems to be thinking more of the fact (expressed by the main verb) which produces the result, while the perfect calls attention rather to the result itself.

Note 2. This difference between the perfect and the imperfect subjunctive can perhaps be more plainly seen by comparing a clause of result with a clause of purpose. Thus:—

RESULT. Inventus est scriba quidam qui cornicum oculos confixerit, there was found a certain clerk who bearded the lion (lif., pierced the eyes of the crows) (Cic., Mūr., 11, 25).

PURPOSE. Reperti sunt duo equites Romani qui te ista cura liberarent, there were found two Roman knights to free you from that anxiety (Cic., Cat., i., 4, 9).

The purpose is something looked forward to in the indefinite future, and therefore has no reference to a particular time other than the time of the main verb; the result is something which has occurred at a definite past time, and therefore, besides its reference to its main verb, involves, like the indicative, a reference also to the time the thing is said.*

Substantive Clauses with Ut, Me, Quin, Quominus.

- 484. After the analogy of final and consecutive clauses, subjunctive clauses introduced by ut (and ut $n\bar{o}n$), $n\bar{e}$ ($n\bar{e}ve$ or neu, and ut $n\bar{e}$), $qu\bar{i}n$, and $qu\bar{o}minus$, were used as the subject or object of a variety of verbs, or in apposition to some word governed by them.
- 485. Clauses analogous to final clauses are thus used depending upon several classes of verbs which denote an action directed to the future. Such clauses are called SUBSTANTIVE OF OBJECT CLAUSES OF PURPOSE. Thus:—
- 486. With verbs meaning to WISH, ASK, BFSEECH, DEMAND, DETERMINE, DECREE, ALLOW, etc.; as:—

Phaëthon optāvit ut in currum patris tollerētur, Phaëthon wanted to be taken up into his father's chariot (Cic., Off.,

* This difference exists, of course, in the nature of the case itself, and not in the form of the expression. In English we mark the difference by the mood of the verb; the Romans failed to do so, but it does not follow that they did not feel the difference.

iii., 25, 94); Verrēs rogat et ōrat Dolābellam, ut ad Nerōnem proficiscātur, Verres asks and begs Dolabella to visit Nero (Cic., Verr., i., 29, 72); mīlitēs pōscunt pūgnam, pōstulant, ut sīgnum darētur, the soldiers call for battle, and demand that the signal be given (Līv., ii., 45, 6); Gallī statuunt, ut decem mīlia hominum in oppidum mīttantur, the Gauls determine that ten thousand men be sent into the town (Caes., B. G., vii., 21); dēcrēvit senātus, ut L. Opīmius vidēret, nē quid rēs pūblica dētrīmentī caperet, the senate decreed that Lucius Opimius should see to it that the state suffered no harm (Cic., Cat., i., 2, 4); cōnsulī permīssum est, ut duās legiōnēs scrīberet novās, the consul was authorized to enroll two new legions (Līv., xxxv., 20, 4).

487. With verbs meaning to PROPOSE, ADVISE, WARN, URGE, PERSUADE, DIRECT, COMMAND, COMPEL, etc.; as:—

[Nēscīs] tē autem ipsum ad populum tulisse, ut quintus praetereā dies Caesarī tribuerētur, and have you forgotten that you yourself proposed to the people that a fifth day besides should be assigned to Caesar? (Cic., Phil., ii., 43, 110); posteā mē, ut sibi essem lēgātus, non solum suāsit, vērum etiam rogāvit, afterwards he not only advised, but even requested me to be his lieutenant (Cic., Prov. Cons., 17, 42); monet, ut in reliquum tempus omnēs sūspīcionēs vītet, he warns him, for the future, to avoid all suspicious conduct (Caes., B. G., i., 20); Canīnius noster mē tuīs verbīs admonuit, ut **scriberem** ad $t\bar{e}$, our friend Caninius has suggested to me on your behalf that I write to you (Cic., Fam., ix., 6, 1); Caesar mīlitēs cohortātus est, utī suae prīstinae virtūtis memoriam retinērent neu perturbārentur animō, Caesar urged the soldiers to hold fast to the remembrance of their old-time valor, and not to be troubled in their minds; huic magnis praemiis pollicitātionibusque persuādet, uti ad hostes trānseat, he persuades this man by promise of great rewards to cross over to the enemy's lines (Caes., B. G., iii., 18); servis imperat, ut sē ipsum neglegant, fīliam dēfendant, he orders his slaves not to pay any attention to him, but to protect his daughter

- (Cic., Verr., i., 26, 67); tenēmus enim memoriā Q. Catulum esse coāctum, ut $v\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ sē ipse prīvāret, for we remember that Quintus Catulus was forced to take his own life (Cic., $d\bar{e}$ $\bar{O}r$., iii., 3, 9).
- 488. Substantive clauses of purpose are further used with verbs meaning to ATTEND TO, LOOK OUT FOR, STRIVE, TRY, etc.; as:—

 $C\bar{u}r\bar{u}$ ut vale $\bar{u}s$, see that you keep well (Cic., Fam., vii., 5, 3); vide \bar{a} mus, ut, quidquid acciderit, fortiter fer \bar{a} mus, let us see to it that we bear bravely whatever happens; qu $\bar{\imath}$ stadium currit, \bar{e} n $\bar{\imath}$ t \bar{i} d \bar{e} bet, ut vincat, he who runs a race ought to try his best to win (Cic., Off., iii., 10, 42).

- 489. Many of these verbs are also used with an infinitive clause. Thus:—
- (1.) Volō, nōlō, mālō, cupiō, studeō, always; statuō, cōn-stituō, dēcernō, generally, take an infinitive (not a subjunctive clause) when there is no change of subject. Thus:—

Sī accelerāre volent, ad vesperam cōnsequentur, if they are willing to hurry they will overtake him by evening (Cic., Cat., ii., 4, 6); simul illōrum calamitātem commemorandō augēre nōlō, at the same time I do not wish to increase the misfortune of these people by dwelling upon it (Cic.. Ver. Ac., i., 14); incommoda sua nostrīs commīttere lēgibus et iūdicīs quam dolōrī suō permīttere māluērunt, they preferred to leave their injuries to the protection of our laws and courts rather than base action upon their own distress (Cic., Verr., i., 32, 82); statuērunt id sēcum in Syriam reportāre, they determined to take that back with them to Syria (Cic., Verr., iv., 28, 64).

(2.) $Vol\bar{o}$, $n\bar{o}l\bar{o}$, $m\bar{a}l\bar{o}$, $cupi\bar{o}$, have often also the infinitive even when the subject changes. Thus:—

An omnīs tū istōs vincere volebās, $qu\bar{\imath}$ nunc $t\bar{\imath}$ ut vincās $tant\bar{o}$ opere $lab\bar{o}rant$, or did you want to have all these gentlemen win who are now struggling so hard to have you win? (Cic., $Qu\bar{\imath}nct.$, 21, 69); tū Syrācūsānōs diem festum $M\bar{a}r$ -cellīs impertīre nōluistī, you were unwilling to have the people of Syracuse celebrate a holiday in honor of the Marcelli

(Cic., Verr., ii., 21, 51); rem tālem per aliōs citius quam per sē tardius cōnficī mālōbat, he preferred to have a matter of this kind carried out quickly by others rather than slowly by himself (Cic., Sēst., 32, 70).

- (3.) $Sin\bar{o}$ always (except in the imperative), and patior generally, take the infinitive.
- (4.) $Iube\bar{o}$ and $vet\bar{o}$ regularly take the infinitive; so also $im-per\bar{o}$ and $p\bar{o}stul\bar{o}$ when the verb dependent upon them is passive or deponent; as:—

Caesar quinque cohortes de media nocte proficisci imperat, Caesar orders five cohorts to set out about midnight.

- 490. Several of these verbs take the subjunctive if they imply a COMMAND or REQUEST, the infinitive if they merely introduce a STATEMENT. Thus:—
- (1.) Persuādeō, moneō, cōncēdō, etc., with the subjunctive, mean "persuade, warn, allow one to do a thing;" with the infinitive, "persuade, warn, grant one that a thing is so and so."
- (2.) Words like dīcere, scrībere, respondēre, nūntiāre, with the subjunctive, mean "tell, write, etc., one to do so and so;" as:—

Dīcam $tu\bar{\imath}s$, ut librum meum dēscrībant ad $t\bar{\imath}que$ mīttant, I will tell your people to make a copy of my book, and send it to you (Cic., Fam., xii., 17, 2).

491. Sometimes the subjunctive has no introductory ut. Thus:—

Vīsne igitur hōc prīmum videāmus, do you wish then that we should look at this point first? mālō tē sapiēns hostis metuat, quam stultī cīvēs laudent, I would rather have you feared by a wise enemy than praised by foolish fellow-countrymen; ā tē petō, mē absentem dēfendās, I beg of you to defend me in my absence; Caesar Commiō imperat quās possit adeat cīvitātēs, Caesar orders Commius to visit such states as he can; hanc sī quī partem putābit esse ōrātiōnis, sequātur licēbit, if any one thinks this is a part of oratory, he may follow [Hermagoras] (Cic., Inven., i., 51, 97).

So with velim, vellem, mālim, etc., used as a circumlocution to express a wish. (See 473, c.)

Note. It is incorrect to say that in these cases an ut is omitted. They are survivals of the old coördinate construction before the ut construction was developed, and the apparently dependent subjunctive is really an independent hortatory or potential subjunctive.

492. After verbs and expressions which denote FEAR, ANXIETY, etc., the subjunctive with $n\bar{e}$ expresses a fear that something will or may happen; with $n\bar{e}$ $n\bar{o}n$ (or ut), a fear that something will or may not happen (see note below). Thus:—

Vereor, nē, dum minuere velim laborem, augeam, I am afraid that, while wishing to lessen the labor, I shall increase it (Cic., Lēg., i., 4, 12); vīdit perīculum esse, nē exūtum impedīmentīs exercitum nēquīquam incolumem trādūxisset, he saw there was danger of his having taken the army safely across to no purpose if stripped of its baggage (Liv., ix., 18); non quo verear, no tua virtus opinioni hominum non respondeat, not that I am afraid that your merits will not fulfill men's expectations (Cic., Fam., ii., 5, 2); verēmur, nē forte non aliorum ūtilitātibus sed propriae laudī servīsse videāmur, I am afraid that I may, perhaps, seem to have been working not for the interests of others, but for my own glory; rem frūmentāriam, ut satis commodē supportārī posset, timēre [sē] dīcēbant, they said they were afraid that provisions could not be conveyed comfortably and conveniently (Caes., B. G., i., 39).

- a. Ut, rather than $n\bar{e}$ $n\bar{o}n$, is used by the comic poets, especially with $time\bar{o}$, $metu\bar{o}$, and $pave\bar{o}$, and by Pacuvius and Terence with vereor. Cicero also prefers ut after vereor and $time\bar{o}$, and Caesar uses it after $time\bar{o}$, as in the last example. $N\bar{e}$ $n\bar{o}n$ is rare in the comic writers, and disappears wholly after Cicero's time.
- b. Vereor, and less commonly other verbs of fearing, when they mean "afraid to do," take an infinitive; as:—
 - Ah! vereor coram in os te laudare amplius, oh, I am

afraid to praise you any more thus to your face (Ter., Ad., 269).

c. The verb of fearing or caution is sometimes omitted in lively address or conversation, the subjunctive clause thus standing alone; as:—

Nē nimium modš... tuos iste animus aequos subvortat, only [take care] lest that easy-going disposition of yours upset us too completely (Ter., Ad., 835).

Note. Clauses of fearing are really developments from the hortatory or the optative use of the subjunctive, and this origin explains the apparent contradiction in the use of at to express "that not." Thus:—

metuo; ne id fiat! = metuo ne id fiat.

I am afraid; $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathrm{let} \\ \mathrm{may} \end{array} \right\}$ it not happen " I am afraid it will happen.

metuō; ne id nōn fīat! = metuō nē id nōn fīat.

metuo; ut id fīat! " metuō ut id fīat.

I am afraid; { let } { it not fail to happen } "I am afraid it will not happen."

- 493. Substantive clauses of purpose often passing into result are used:—
- (1.) With $n\bar{e}$ (ut $n\bar{e}$) or without a particle, after words meaning to guard against or forbid. Thus:—

Cavendum est, $n\bar{e}$ extr \bar{a} modum prodess, you must guard against overstepping the limit (Cic., Off., i., 39, 140); neque enim est interdictum aut \bar{a} rērum $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}r\bar{a}$ aut \bar{a} lēge aliquā atque more, ut singulīs hominibus $n\bar{e}$ amplius quam singulās artēs nosse liceat, for neither by the constitution of the universe, nor by any statute or convention, is it forbidden that one man shall know more than one subject (Cic., $d\bar{e}$ $\bar{O}r$., i., 50, 215).

a. $Cav\bar{e}re$ means properly "look out for," "provide for." Therefore with $n\bar{e}$ it means "to guard against;" and with ut "to take care that." $Cav\bar{e}$ without a particle is used as a circumlocution for forbidding. Thus:—

Cavē fēstīnēs, do not hasten; cavē faxis, don't do it.

(2.) With $n\bar{e}$ or $qu\bar{o}minus$ (sometimes also $qu\bar{i}n$, if the

main clause contains or implies a negative), after verbs meaning to OPPOSE, REFUSE, HINDER, etc. Thus:

 $Pl\bar{u}ra$ nē scrībam, $dol\bar{v}re$ impedior, I am prevented by grief from writing more; Atticus, nē $qu\bar{u}$ $sib\bar{t}$ statua pōnerētur, restitit, Atticus opposed having a statue set up to him anywhere; $e\bar{\iota}sdem$ $d\bar{e}$ $caus\bar{\iota}s$... $qu\bar{o}minus$ $d\bar{\iota}mic\bar{u}re$ vellet, movēbātur, by the same reasons he was influenced against wishing to fight (Caes., B. C., i., 82); $Epam\bar{\iota}n\bar{o}nd\bar{u}s$ $n\bar{o}n$ recūsāvit $qu\bar{o}minus$ $l\bar{e}gis$ poenam subīret, Epaminondas did not refuse to suffer the penalty of the law (Nep., Epam., viii., 2); $R\bar{e}gulus$ sententiam nē dīceret recūsāvit, Regulus refused to give an opinion (Cic., Off., iii., 27, 100); $n\bar{o}n$ possumus, $qu\bar{\iota}n$ $ali\bar{\iota}$ \bar{u} $n\bar{o}b\bar{\iota}s$ dissentiant recūsāre, we cannot object to others disagreeing with us (Cic., Acad., ii., 3, 7).

a. $Rec\bar{u}s\bar{a}re$ in affirmative clauses always takes $n\bar{e}$ after it; in negative clauses it may be followed by $qu\bar{i}n$, $qu\bar{o}minus$, or the infinitive.

Illud recūsāvit, nē id \bar{a} $s\bar{e}$ $fier\bar{i}$ pōstulārent, quod adversus $i\bar{u}s$ $hospit\bar{i}$ esset, he would not let them demand that a thing should be done by him which was against the law of hospitality (Nep., xxiii., 12, 3); nōn recūsābō, quōminus $omn\bar{e}s$ mea legant, I will not object to everybody reading my words (Cic., $F\bar{\imath}n$., i., 3, 7); $fr\bar{a}ter$ meus ad omnia $per\bar{\imath}cula$ $pr\bar{\imath}nceps$ esse nōn recūsābat, my brother has no reluctance to taking the lead in facing all dangers.

b. Impedīre and dēterrēre sometimes, and prohibēre more commonly, take the infinitive. Thus:—

Caesar īgnēs in castrīs fierī prohibuit, Caesar forbade fires being made in the camp (Caes., B. C., iii., 30, 5); quid est, quod mē impediat ea, quae mihī probābilia videantur sequī, what is there to hinder me from adopting the views which seem to me probable? (Cic., Off., ii. 2, 8).

- 494. Substantive clauses after the analogy of CLAUSES OF RESULT are chiefly used:
 - a. With impersonal verbs like fit, accidit, contingit, evenit,

est, as a circumlocution to express the occurrence or existence of something. Thus:—

Accidit ut $\bar{u}n\bar{a}$ nocte omnēs hermae Athēnīs dēicerentur, it came to pass that in one night all the "hermae"* at Athens were thrown down; persaepe ēvenit, ut $\bar{u}tilit\bar{u}s$ cum honestāte certet, it is often the case that what is expedient is at variance with what is right (Cic., Part. $\bar{O}r.$, 25, 89); quandē fuit ut quod licet non licēret, when was it true that the lawful was not lawful?

- 495. After certain kinds of verbs the substantive clause has a final or a consecutive character, according as the given case is regarded as something intended or as something accomplished or in process of accomplishment. Thus:—
- 496. With verbs meaning to CAUSE, ACCOMPLISH, OBTAIN, etc.; as:—

Hamilear effect ut imperator in Hispaniam mitteretur, Hamilear brought it about that he should be sent into Spain as commander (0000,00,00). (FINAL.)

Impetrābis \bar{a} Caesare, ut tibř abesse liceat, you will get from Caesar permission to be away (Cic., Att., ix., 2, A 1). (Consecutive.)

Commeātūs ab Rēmīs reliquīsque cīvitātibus ut sine perīculō ad eum portārī possent, efficiēbat, [this thing] made it possible for supplies to be brought to him from the Remi and the other states without danger (Caes., B. G., ii., 5). (FINAL.)

497. So with impersonal verbs like efficitur, sequitur,† restat, relinquitur, and expressions like proximum est, mos est, iūs est. Thus:—

Restat, ut dē imperātore ad id bellum dēligendo . . . dīcendum esse videātur, it seems necessary for me in conclusion to

- * That is, images of Hermes with only the upper half of the body delineated, the lower half being simply squared off into a column of support.
- † Efficitur and sequitur may also take an infinitive; as: ex quō illud efficitur, quī benė cēnent, omnēs libenter cenāre, thence follows that all who dine well enjoy dining.



speak about the choice of a commander for this war (Cic., $L\bar{e}g$. $M\bar{a}n$., 10, 27). (Consecutive.)

Proximum est, ut doceam deōrum prōvidentiā mundum administrūrī, the next thing is for me to show that the universe is managed by divine providence (Cic., N. D., ii., 29, 73). (Final.)

Ariovistus respondit iūs ēsse bellī, ut quī vīcissent eīs quōs vīcissent quemadmodum vellent imperārent, Ariovistus answered that it was the right of war for the conqueror to lay such commands upon the vanquished as he wishes (Caes., B. G., i., 36). (Final.)

498. So after comparatives with quam, with or without ut, the subjunctive has sometimes a final, sometimes a consecutive, nature. Thus:—

Isocrates māiore mihi ingcnio vidētur esse quam ut cum Lysiā comparētur, Isocrates seems to me to have too great ability to be compared with Lysias. (Final.)

Quī perpessus est omnia potius quam cōnsciōs dēlendae tyrannidis indicāret, who suffered everything rather than disclose the accomplices of the plot to overthrow the tyranny (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, ii., 22, 52). (Consecutive.)

499. To the foregoing clauses may be added the clauses with $qu\bar{\imath}n$, depending on a clause which contains or implies negation. Thus: —

Nemo fuit militum quin volneraretur, there was no one of the soldiers but was wounded. (Consecutive.)

Quis est, quin cernat, quanta vis sit in sensibus, who does not see how much power there is in the senses? (Consecutive.)

Aegrē sunt retentī mīlitēs quīn oppidum irrumperent, the soldiers were with difficulty restrained from bursting into the town (Caes., B. C., ii., 13). (Consecutive.)

Cicerō nihil praetermīsit, quīn Pompēium ā Caesaris coniūnctiōne āvocāret, Cicero neglected no means of trying to get Pompey away from alliance with Caesar. (FINAL.)

NOTE. It will be seen that in the first two examples quin retains more of its original force as a relative, and in the last two has become more thoroughly a conjunction.

a. Clauses with quin are especially common after non possum, facere non possum, non dubito, non dubium est, etc. Thus:—

Facere non possum quin cottīdie ad tē mīttam lītterās, I cannot help sending you a letter every day. (Final.)

Quis dubitet, quin in virtute divitiae sint, who can doubt that there are riches in virtue? (CONSECUTIVE.)

Non $vid\bar{e}b\bar{a}tur$ esse dubium, quin $Caesar\ vent\bar{u}rus$ esset, there seemed to be no doubt that Caesar would come. (Consecutive.)

b. In the meaning "I do not hesitate to do," $n\bar{o}n$ dubit \bar{o} may also take an infinitive in classical Latin, though rarely after the forms of expression $n\bar{o}n$ est dubitandum, and $n\bar{o}l\bar{\iota}$ dubit $\bar{u}re$. Thus:—

Prō patriā quis bonus dubitet mortem oppetere, what good man would hesitate to meet death for his country? nōlīte dubitāre quīn Pompēiō ūnī crēdātis omnia, do not be reluctant to trust everything to Pompey alone.

Note. Nepos, Livy, and the later writers also use the infinitive sometimes after $n\bar{o}n\ dubit\bar{o}$ in the meaning "I do not doubt that."

c. Tantum abest takes after it two clauses with ut, one a pure result clause, the other a substantive clause. Thus:—

Tantum abest ut $scrib\bar{\imath}$ contrā $n\bar{o}s$ nolīmus, ut id etiam $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$ optēmus, so far am I from being unwilling to have men write against me, that that is what I particularly desire (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, ii., 2, 4).

d. When clauses introduced by ut, $qu\bar{\imath}n$, etc., contain the apodosis of a past condition contrary to fact, and depend on a secondary tense, the circumlocution $fact\bar{\imath}urus$ (etc.) fuerit is generally used instead of a pluperfect subjunctive. Thus:—

Adeō inopiā est coāctus Hannibal, ut, nisi cum fugae speciē abeundum timuisset, Galliam repetītūrus fuerit, Hannibal was driven by want to such a pass that if he had not been afraid of seeming to run away if he withdrew, he would have gone back to Gaul (Līv., xxii., 32, 3).

e. Sometimes the perfect subjunctive of a word like posse, dēbēre, etc., or a gerundive, is used in the same way. Thus:—

Haud dubium fuit quin, nisi ea mora intervenisset, castra eō die capī potuerint, there was no doubt that, if this delay had not occurred, the camp could have been taken on that day; adeō aequīs vīribus gesta rēs est, ut, sī adfuissent Etrūscī, accipienda clādēs fuerit, the engagement took place with forces so nearly equal that if the Etruscans had been there a disaster must have befallen us.

Cf. 517, below.

Note. The above treatment of subjunctive substantive clauses is intended to classify as conveniently as may be the kinds of verbs after which such clauses are most common. Various other verbs sometimes express ideas to which the same sort of notion may be attached, and can then of course take such a substantive clause. Thus:—

Ad Appī Claudi senectūtem accēdēbat etiam ut caecus esset, to the old age of Appius Claudius was added blindness also (Cic., Sen., 6, 16); quam palmam utinam di immortālēs, Scipiō, tibi reservent, ut avī reliquiās persequāre, this glory of finishing your grandfather's work I pray that the immortal gods may keep for you, Scipio (Cic., Sen., 6, 19).

For other kinds of substantive clauses, see 540, and as follows: -

Clauses with Quod, 540, 4.

Infinitive Clauses, 515 ff., and 533 ff.

Indirect Questions, 518.

Relative Clauses (other than those of Purpose or Result).

- 500. (1.) Relative clauses take the INDICATIVE when they state (or deny) a fact in regard to the antecedent. Such clauses may also *imply* a cause, result, concession, etc., or be equivalent to a condition, but the *fact* is always the prominent thing.
- (2.) Relative clauses take the SUBJUNCTIVE when they indicate a QUALITY or CHARACTERISTIC of the antecedent conceived (a) as making the statement of the main clause applicable; (b) as a cause or hindrance of that statement; (c) as a special restriction or a condition of its application; (d) as producing a given result.

NOTE. This use of the subjunctive is often called the SUBJUNCTIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC, especially when a result is involved in it (class d). The antecedent is frequently a word like is, $t\bar{a}lis$, tantus, $n\bar{e}m\bar{o}$.

501. The following examples will make these uses and distinctions clearer.

INDICATIVE.

Virtūs est ūna altissimīs dēfīxa rādīcibus, quae numquam vī ūllā labefactūrī potest, virtue is the one thing which, fixed upon the deepest roots, can never be shaken by any force*(Cic., Phil., iv., 5, 13).

Fortūnātus illīus exitus quī ea nōn vīdit, cum fierent, quae prōvīdit futūra, happy his end, for he saw not when they came the things which he foresaw were coming (Cic., Brūt., 96, 329).

Cūrat Chrysogonus, ut ēius bona vēneant statim, quī nōn nōrat hominem aut rem, Chrysogonus took care to have his effects at once sold, though he did not know either the man or the case (Cic., Rōsc. Am., 37, 105).

Quia $m\bar{e}$ meamque rem, quod in $t\bar{e}$ $\bar{u}n\bar{o}$ fuit, $d\bar{e}lace$ - $r\bar{u}vist\bar{\iota}$, because, so far as was in your individual power, you have ruined me and my interests (Plaut., Capt., 666).

Catōnem vērō quis nostrō-

SUBJUNCTIVE.

(a.)

Innocentia est adfectiō tālis animī, quae noceat nēminī, harmlessness is that sort of mental disposition which harms nobody (Cic., Tūsc., iii., 8, 16).

(b.)

Ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēneris, O happy youth, in that you found in Homer the herald of your valor (Cic., Arch., 10, 24).

Egŏmet, quī sērō āc leviter Graecās lītterās attigissem, tamen complūrēs Athēnīs diēs sum commorātus, I, though I had dabbled in Greek literature late and but slightly, yet tarried several days at Athens (cf. Cic., dē Ōr., i., 18, 82).

Epicūrus sē ūnus, quod sciam, sapientem profitērī est ausus, Epicurus alone, so far as I know, ventured to proclaim himself a wise man (Cic., $F\bar{\imath}n$., ii., 3, 7).

Omnium quidem ōrātōrum,

* The difference between the two moods in relative clauses often cannot be shown by an English translation without greatly changing the form of the expression, but a more or less literal translation will perhaps aid the pupil in understanding the use of the moods, by clearing from his path any difficulties arising from the meanings of the Latin words.

rum ōrātōrum, quī quidem nunc sunt, legit? but who of of our orators — of the present age at least — reads Cato? (Cic., Brūt., 17, 65).

Quis ignorat, qui modo umquam mediocriter res istas scīre cūrāvit, quin tria Graecorum genera sint? who does not know, provided he has ever taken moderate pains to understand this subject, that there are three races of Greeks? (Cic., Flacc., 27, 64).

Quisquis $h\bar{u}c$ vēnerit, $v\bar{a}$ - $pul\bar{a}bit$, whoever comes here
will get a beating (Plaut., Amph., 153).

Virtūtem quī adeptus erit, ubĭcumque erit gentium, ā nōbīs dīligētur, the man who acquires virtue will be esteemed by us wherever he shall be (Cic., N. D., i., 44, 121).

 $M\bar{a}ximum$ $\bar{o}rn\bar{a}mentum$ $am\bar{c}itiae$ tollit, $qu\bar{i}$ ex $e\bar{a}$ tollit $ver\bar{e}cundiam$, he takes away the greatest adornment of friendship, who takes away respect from it (Cic., Am., 22, 83).

Quicquam bonum est, quod non eum qui id possidet, meliorem facit? is there any good thing which does not make him who possesses it better? Cic., Par., i., 3, 14).

quōs quidem egŏ cōgnōverim, acūtissimum iūdicō Q. Sertōrium, of all orators—those at least whom I know—I judge Quintus Sertorius to be the sharpest (Cic., Brūt., 48, 180).

Servos est nēmō, quī modŏ tolerābilī condiciōne sit servitūtis, quī nōn audāciam cīvium perhorrēscat, there is not a slave, provided he is in an endurable state of slavery, who does not shudder at the recklessness of citizens (Cic., Cat., iv., 8, 16).

Quaecumque causa $v\bar{o}s$ $h\bar{u}c$ attulisset, laetārer, I should be glad, whatever reason had brought you here (Cic., $d\bar{e}$ $\bar{O}r$., ii., 4, 15).

Philosophia, cui quī pāreat, omne tempus aetātis sine molestiā possit dēgere, philosophy, whose obedient disciples can pass all the periods of life without annoyance (Cic., Sen., 1, 2).

(d.)

Quis tam fuit illo tempore ferreus, qui non illorum aetate, nobilitate, miseria commoveretur? who was there then so hard hearted as not to be influenced by the age and rank and misfortunes of these people? (Cic., Verr., v., 46, 121).

a. The subjunctive of characteristic is especially common after general expressions of existence or non-existence. When such expressions are followed by an indicative relative clause they usually contain some word like *multī*, *quīdam*, etc., which to a certain extent specializes them. (Cf. 500, note.)

INDICATIVE.

Sunt autem multī,...quī ēripiunt * aliīs quod aliīs largiantur, but there are many who take away from one to give to another (Cic., Off., i., 14, 43).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sunt qui discessum animi \bar{a} corpore putent esse mortem, there are [philosophers] who think that death is the departure of the soul from the body (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 9, 18).

- b. The distinction between the indicative and the subjunctive is perhaps most easy to see in the clauses which are equivalent to the protases of conditions, as in the last examples under class (c) above; although here, too, the distinction is a very subtle one. Quī adeptus erit is the man who as a fact shall have got, $qu\bar{\imath}$ $p\bar{a}reat$, the man who in any given case should obey. With the general relatives quisquis, $qu\bar{\imath}cumque$, etc., the indicative is much more common than the subjunctive.
- c. Short relative clauses merely defining an individual, and thus practically equivalent to a descriptive adjective, are apt to take the indicative where a characteristic subjunctive might be expected.† Thus:—

Haec est, inquam, societas, in qua omnia Insunt, quae putant homines expetenda, this is an association, I say, in which are contained all the things which men think worth aiming at (Cic., Am, 22, 84).

- * The fact quality still comes out sharply in these cases, and thus distinguishes them from the subjunctive clauses.
- † The pupil should perhaps be cautioned that the indicative here has not any more than elsewhere the same shade of meaning which a subjunctive would have. It is only that the *point of view of the writer* is slightly different according to the mood he chooses in any given case.



Clauses with the Temporal Particles Dum, Donec, Quoad.

502. Dum, donec, quoad, meaning "so long as," * or "while," † almost always take the indicative in classical Latin.

NOTE. They thus simply mark the fact that one action is coextensive with, or happens during, another.

Examples are:

Ut aegroto, dum anima est, spēs esse dīcitur, sīc egŏ, quoad Pompeius in Ītaliā fuit, spērāre non dēstiti, as a sick man, so long as the breath of life remains, is said to have hope, so I did not cease to hope as long as Pompey was in Italy (Cic., Att., ix., 10, 3); dum egő in Siciliā sum, nūlla statua dēiecta est, while I was in Sicily not a statue was thrown down (Cic., Verr., ii., 66, 161); tuās epistulās cum legō, minus miht turpis videor, sed tam diū, dum logō, when I read your letters I fancy myself less base, but only so long as I am reading (Cic., Att., ix., 6, 5); dum in Asiā bellum geritur, nē in Aetoliā quidem quietae res fuerant, while the war was going on in Asia, affairs had been in unrest even in Aetolia (Līv., xxxviii., 1, 1); neque enim, dum eram vöbīscum, animum meum vidēbatis, for while I was with you, you did not see my soul (Cic., Sen., 22, 79); dum haec Vēīs agēbantur, interim arx Romae Capitoliumque in ingento peroculo fuit, in the interval while these things were going on at Vei, the Citadel and Capitol at Rome came into great danger (Līv., v., 47, 1); dum Latīnae loquentur lītterae, quercus huic locō nōn deerit, as long as Latin literature shall [live and] speak, this place will not lack an oak-tree (Cic., $L\bar{e}qq$., i., 1, 2); $h\bar{b}c$ $f\bar{e}c\bar{i}$, dum liquit, intermisi, quoad non licuit, this I did as long as it was allowable, and refrained from as long as it was not allowable (Cic., Phil., iii., 13, 33).

^{*} I. e., definitely marking duration of time.

[†] I. e., either indefinitely marking duration or denoting a certain point in a given time.

Donec grātus eram tibǐ, Persārum viguī rēge beātior.

More blest than Persia's king I throve, What time thou heldst me dear.

(Hor., Carm., iii., 9, 1 ff.)

- a. Dum has a preference for the present tense. (Cf. 468.)
- b. Donec is not used in Cicero in these meanings, nor in Caesar and Sallust at all.
- c. Sometimes a causal notion is implied in the clause with dum. Thus: —

Ita dum pauca mancipia retinēre volt, fortūnās omnēs perdidit, thus, in consequence of wishing to hold on to a few slaves, she lost all her property (Cic., Caec., 17, 56); in hās clādīs incidimus, dum metuī quam cārī esse et dīligī māluimus, these are the disasters we have fallen into in consequence of having preferred to be feared rather than to be dear and beloved (Cic., Off., ii., 8, 29).

d. The subjunctive with dum, donec, quoad, in the meanings "while," "so long as," is very rare in classical Latin, but occurs several times in Livy, and becomes more common later. The subjunctive here seems to mark the character of the time rather than the fact of the occurrence, and thus to differ from the indicative just as the relative clauses of characteristic do. Thus:—

Istō bonō ūtāre dum adsit, cum absit nē requīrās, use that blessing while it is there, but when it is gone do not pine for it (Cic., Sen., 10, 33); nihil deinde morātus, rēx quattuor mīlia armātōrum, dum recēns terror esset, Scotūssam mīsit, then with no delay the king sent four thousand armed men to Scotussa while the panic was fresh (Līv., xxxvi., 9, 13); nihil sānē trepidābant [elephantī], dōnec continentī velut ponte agerentur, the elephants displayed no excitement as long as they were driven along what seemed to be a continuous bridge (Līv., xxi., 28, 10).*

* These cases are sometimes, but it seems to me less satisfactorily, explained otherwise: dum adsit, as attraction (see 523), dum esset, as implied indirect discourse (see 522), donec agerentur, as a general condition (see 477, d, 2).



503. With dum, donec, quoad, meaning "until," the indicative simply chronicles the fact, the subjunctive implies a purpose. Thus:—

INDICATIVE.

Mihi quidem ūsque cūrae erit, quid agās, dum, quid ēgeris, scierō, I certainly shall be constantly anxious as to how you are until I know how you have been (Cic., Fam., xii., 19, 3).

Usque eō timuī, dōnec ad rēiciundōs iūdicēs vēnimus, I was afraid up to the time when we came to rejecting jurymen (Cic., Verr., i., 6, 17).

Tamen non faciam finem rogandi, quoad nobis nuntiatum erit te id fecisse, yet I shall not stop asking until word is brought me that you have done the thing (Cic., Att., xvi., 16, 16).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Dum reliquae nāvēs eō convenīrent, ad hōram nōnam in ancorīs exspectāvit, he waited at anchor till the ninth hour for the rest of the ships to assemble there (Caes., B. G., iv., 23).

Rogandī ōrandīque sunt, ut . . . differant in tempus aliud, dum dēfervēsoat īra, they must be asked and begged to postpone [their vengeance] till another time, namely, till their wrath cools down (Cic., Tūsc., iv., 36, 78).

Exspectā, amābō tē, dum Atticum conveniam, wait, please, till I meet Atticus (Cic., Att., vii., 1, 4).

- a. $D\bar{o}nec$ and quoad are very rare with the subjunctive in this sense.
- b. The imperfect and pluperfect indicative do not occur with dum, meaning "until," and in the subjunctive only the tenses for incomplete action (present and imperfect) are found.

Clauses of Proviso.

504. $Dum, mod\tilde{o}$, and dummodo, indicating a PROVISO ("if only," "provided that"), take the subjunctive. The negative particle is $n\bar{e}$. Thus:—

Ōderint, dum metuant, let them hate if only they fear (Suēt., Cal., 30); dum rēs maneant, verba fingant arbitrātū suō, provided the things are left, let them fashion words

at their own sweet will (Cic., Fīn., v., 29, 89); manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et indūstria, the mental faculties of the old do not become impaired provided their interest and energy hold out (Cic., Sen., 7, 22); celeriter ad comitia veniendum cēnseō, dummodo nō haec ambitiōsa fēstīnātiō aliquid imminuat ēius glōriae, I think we ought to come quickly to the election, provided that such haste prompted by ambition should not detract somewhat from his glory (Cic., Fam., x., 25, 2); omnia postposuō, dummodo praeceptīs patris pārērem, I put everything off, provided I obeyed my father's instructions (Cic. fīl. apud Cic., Fam., xvi., 21, 6).

NOTE. The proviso with $mod\tilde{o}$ and dummodo was originally a hortatory subjunctive; with dum it developed from the temporal use. Cases like the first example under 502, d ($\bar{u}t\bar{a}re$, dum adsit), are the connecting link between the indicative temporal clause and the proviso. In these provisional clauses the subjunctive retains its indefinite future force, the present applying to a present, the imperfect to a past, situation.

Clauses with Antequam and Priusquam.

505. With antequam or priusquam, "before," the indicative simply states (or denies) as a fact the priority of the thing said in the main clause to that said in the temporal clause; the subjunctive marks a further relation between the two clauses. Thus:—

INDICATIVE.

Antequam $pr\bar{o}$ L. $M\bar{u}r\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{a}$ $d\bar{v}cere$ instituō, $pr\bar{o}$ $m\bar{e}$ $ips\bar{o}$ pauca $d\bar{v}cam$, before I begin to speak in defense of Lucius Murena I will say a few words in my own behalf (Cic., $M\bar{u}r.$, 1, 2).

Petīlīnī non antequam vīrēs ad standum in mūrīs ferendaque arma deerant, expūgnātī sunt, the Petilini SUBJUNCTIVE.

Is vīdēlicet antequam veniat in Pontum, litterās ad Cn. Pompēium mīttet, he will, of course, send a letter to Gnaeus Pompeius before he gets to Pontus (Cic., Agr., ii., 20, 53).

Tragoedī cottīdiē antequam pronuntient vocem cubantēs sēnsim excitant, the [Greek] tragedians, in a re-

were not beaten until strength to stand on the walls and hold their arms failed them (Līv., xxiii., 30, 4).

Neque dēfatīgābor antequam ancipitīs viās ratiūnēsque et prō omnibus et contrā omnia disputandī percēperō, nor shall I yield to fatigue before I have learned the devious ways and principles of argument on both sides of all questions (Cic., dē Ōr., iii., 36, 145).

Inde ante profectus est Antōnius quam egŏ eum vēnisse cōgnōvī, Antonius went away from there before I learned that he had come (Cic., Att., xv., 1, a, 2).

Membrīs ūtimur priusquam didicimus, cūius ea causā ūtilitātis habeāmus, we use our limbs before we have learned for what useful purpose we have them (Cic., $F\bar{\imath}n$., iii., 20, 66).

Neque prius fugere dēstitērunt, quam ad flūmen Rhēnum . . . pervēnērunt, nor did they stop fleeing before they reached the river Rhine (Caes., B. G., i., 53).

Antequam tuās lēgī litterās, hominem īre cupiēbam, before I read your letter I wanted the man to go (Cic., Att., ii., 7, 2).

clining position, daily practice raising their voices gradually louder and louder, before they are to declaim their parts (Cic., $d\bar{e}$ $\bar{O}r.$, i., 59, 251).

Priusquam inde dīgrederentur, rogantī Mettiō, ex foedere īctō quid imperāret, imperat Tullus, uti iuventūtem in armīs habeat, in answer to the question of Mettius before they left the place, what his orders were in accordance with the treaty they had struck, Tullus ordered him to keep the young men under arms (Līv., i., 26, 1).

Inde ante discessit quam illum vēnisse audīssem, he went from there before I had heard of his having come (Cic., Att., xiv., 20, 2).

Numidae priusquam ex castrīs subvenīrētur, sīcutī iūssī erant, in proximōs collēs dēscendunt, the Numidians go down, as they had been ordered, to the nearest hills before aid from the camp could arrive (Sall., Iug., 54).

Non prius Viridovicem reliquosque duces ex concilio dimittunt, quam ab his sit concessum, they do not let Viridovix and the other leaders go from the meeting before they have granted (Caes., B. G., iii., 18).

NOTE. The difference between the two moods can be seen most plainly in the fourth pair of examples above. Here the indicative simply chronicles the fact that Antonius had gone before Cicero learned of his coming, the subjunctive implies that Cicero's not knowing of his coming prevented him from stopping Antonius' departure. In the first subjunctive example there is an implication that it is important to have the letter sent before the writer himself appears; in the second example the purpose of the practice is hinted at in the subjunctive $pr\bar{o}n\bar{u}ntient$, and so on.

a. Beginning, perhaps, with Livy, the feeling for this difference between an indicative and a subjunctive in temporal clauses is more and more confused, and the subjunctive becomes more and more common where it is difficult, if not impossible, to see why the indicative should not have been used. Thus:—

Paucīs ante diēbus quam Syrācūsae caperentur, T. Otācilius cum quīnquerēmibus octōgintā Uticam ab Lilybaeō trānsmīsit, a few days before Syracuse was taken, Titus Otacilius crossed over to Utica from Libybaeum with eighty men-of-war (Līv., xxv., 31, 12).

Cf. also Clauses with Cum, 509.

Clauses with Postquam, Ubi, etc.

506. Clauses with postquam (posteāquam), "after," and ubī, "when," "after," "as soon as," almost always, and clauses with ut, "when," "as soon as," and simul āc, "as soon as," perhaps always, take the indicative, simply stating (or denying) that the act of the main clause is subsequent to that of the temporal clause. These conjunctions have a preference for the perfect tense, even where the pluperfect would be more exact (cf. 469). Thus:—

Mīlitēs postquam victōriam adeptī sunt, nihil reliquī victīs fēcēre, the soldiers, after they [had] won the victory, left nothing to the conquered (Sall., Cat., 11); postquam īnstrūctī utrīusque stābant, . . . in medium ducēs prōcēdunt, after they got into position on both sides, . . . the leaders came forward into the space between (Līv., i., 23, 6); ubǐ dē ēius adventū Helvētiī certiōrēs factī sunt, lēgūtōs ad eum mīttunt, when (after) the Helvetians were informed of his arrival, they

sent ambassadors to him (Caes., B. G., i., 7); Pompēius ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit. aciē excēssit. after Pompeius saw his cavalry routed he withdrew from the battle (Caes., B. C., iii., 94); simul āc prīmum eī occāsiō vīsa est, āversā pecāniā pāblicā quaestor cōnsulem dēseruit, as soon as it seemed to him a good opportunity, the quaestor, appropriating the funds of the state, abandoned his consul (Cic., Verr., i., 13, 34).

507. Other temporal expressions than ante, prius, and post are sometimes followed by a clause with quam. Thus:—

Intrā trīduum quam oppūgnāre coeperat, receptam [urbem] ex hostilus colūnīs restituit, within three days from beginning the siege he recovered the town from the enemy and restored it to the settlers (Līv., xli., 16, 8); Lilybaeum tertiō diē quam inde profectus erat . . . rediit, he came back to Lilybaeum three days after he had gone from there (Līv., xxv., 31, 14); multa mēhercule fēcit Antōnius prīdiē quam tū illum relinquerēs, Antonius was very active indeed the day before you left him (cf. Vell., Pater., ii., 83, 3); cum eō Catulus et Lūcullus nōsque ipsī postrīdiē vēnissēmus quam apud Catulum fuissēmus, when Catulus, Lucullus, and myself had come there the day after we had been at Catulus's house (Cic., Acad., ii., 3, 9).

508. Livy, Tacitus, and the later writers sometimes use the subjunctive (pluperfect as well as imperfect) with $ub\tilde{i}$ (and $quoti\bar{e}ns$), to denote the general repetition of an act in past time, where the classical writers have the indicative. Thus:—

Id ubĭ dīxisset, hastam in fīnēs eōrum ēmīttēbat, when [every time] he had said this, he would throw a spear into their country (Līv., i., 32, 14); quotiēns super tālī negōtiō cōnsultāret, ēditā domūs parte āc lībertī ūnīus cōnscientiā ūtēbūtūr, whenever he conferred about a matter of this kind, he would retire to the upper part of the palace and take only one freedman as a witness (Tac., Ann., vi., 21).

Cf. under Conditional Sentences, 477, d, 2, and under cum, 510, 1, and examples 8-13 in the indicative column, 9-11 in the subjunctive column.

NOTE 1. Ut is found with the subjunctive only in the following example: —

Iam ut limen exirem ad genua accidit lacrumāns misera, the minute I crossed the threshold the poor girl fell weeping at my feet (Ter., Hec., iii., 3, 18).

NOTE 2. Postquam also occurs in one or two passages with the subjunctive, though in the few places in Cicero where it occurs in the manuscripts (in the form posteā quam) the best texts now read posteā cum.

Clauses with Cum (Quom).

- 509. (1.) Clauses with cum (quom), "when," if present, imperfect, or future, mark a collateral event occurring at the same time as the main event; if perfect, pluperfect, or future perfect, they mark a collateral event occurring just before the main event.
- (2.) If only this temporal relation exists between the two events, the *cum* clause takes the INDICATIVE.
- (3.) If a further relation * exists, but the actual occurrence of the collateral event is more important than that relation, the cum clause again takes the INDICATIVE.
- (4.) But if the marking of the further relation is the more important thing to the writer, the *cum* clause takes the SUBJUNCTIVE.
- a. In the imperfect and pluperfect tenses the subjunctive is so much more common † than the indicative, even where a difference of meaning is hardly appreciable, that it is a good practical rule for the beginner in writing Latin, that these tenses should not be used in the indicative.
- * That is, if one event is to be regarded as causing, hindering, or otherwise affecting the other.
- † The proportion of subjunctives to indicatives in Cicero's orations is about five to one for the imperfect tense, more than twenty to one for the pluperfect.



NOTE. The subjunctive with cum is a characteristic subjunctive, as with the relative pronouns. (Cf. 500, 2, note.) The primary difference of meaning between the indicative and the subjunctive is thus roughly indicated by the expressions "at the time when" (indicative), "at a time when" (subjunctive). (Cf. the first pair of examples below.)

- 510. From the simple temporal meaning, cum (quom) passes into the meanings:—
 - (1.) "Whenever" (application general)
 "Now that" (applying to the immediate present)
 "In that" (explanatory)

 chiefly with the indicative, until after the classical period.
 - (2.) "Although" (implying a hindrance)
 "Since" (implying a reason)
 "While on the other hand" (an alternative)

 with the subjunctive, except in early Latin.
- a. In Plautus and Terence and other early Latin writers, the subjunctive with quom is rare, the indicative being used, whether the mere fact of time is to be expressed or a reason is to be implied.
- 511. These uses and shades of meaning can best be understood by a careful study of a series of examples like the following:—

INDICATIVE.

Nam in cētērīs rēbus cum venit calamitās, tum dētrīmentum accipitur, for in everything else the damage is received only when the disaster actually comes (Cic., Lēg. Mān., 6, 15).

Cum haec Rōmae agēbantur, Chalcide Antiochus sollicitābat cīvitātium animōs, when this was going on at

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Nunc in ipsō discrīmine ōrdinis iūdiciōrumque vestrōrum, cum sint parātī quī, etc., now at the very crisis of the danger to the senate and to your right of supplying juries, at a time when there are people ready to, etc. (Cic., Verr. Act., i., 1, 2).

Ipse, cum prīmum $p\bar{a}$ - $bul\bar{i}$ $c\bar{o}pia$ esse inciperet, ad

Rome, Antiochus was stirring up the feelings of the cities at Chalcis (Līv., xxxvi., 5, 1).

Cum haec leges, habēbimus consules, when you read this we shall have consuls (Cic., Att., v., 12, 2).

Cum primum $R\bar{o}mam$ $v\bar{e}ni$, nihil prius faciendum $put\bar{a}v\bar{\imath}$, as soon as I got to Rome I thought nothing ought to be done earlier (Cic., Att., iv., 1, 1).

Nondum centum et decem annī sunt cum dē pecūniīs repetundīs ā L. Pīsone lāta lēx est, nūlla anteā cum fuisset, it is not yet a hundred and ten years since Lucius Piso proposed a law about bribery, there having been none before (Cic., Off., ii., 21, 75).

Tum cum in Asiā rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant, scīmus Rōmae solūtiōne impedītā fidem concidisse, at that time, when a large number of people had lost large fortunes in Asia, we know that payment was obstructed at Rome and credit collapsed (Cic., Lēg. Mān., 7, 19).

 $S\bar{\imath}n$ cum potuero, $n\bar{o}n$ $v\bar{e}ner\bar{o}$, tum erit $inim\bar{\imath}cus$, but if I do not come when I can, then he will be my enemy (Cic., Att., ix., 2, a, 2).

exercitum venit, he himself, as soon as there began to be plenty of fodder, went to the army (Caes., B. G., ii., 2).

Zēnōnem cum Athēnīs essem, audiēbam frequenter, during my stay at Athens I often attended Zeno's lectures (Cic., N. D., i., 21, 59).

Poterō silēre, Hortēnsī, poterō dissimulāre, cum tantum rēs pūblica volnus accēperit? can I be silent, Hortensius, can I hide my feelings at a time when the state has received so severe a wound? (Cic., Verr., v., 70, 179).

Cum ēius prōmīssīs legiōnēs fortissimae reclāmāssent, domum ad sē venīre iūssit centuriōnēs, when the legions most stoutly held out against his promises, he ordered the centurions to come to his house (Cic., Phil., v., 8, 22).

Cum hostem populī Rōmānī Antōnium iūdicāsset, comes esse ēius āmentiae nōluit, having judged Antony the enemy of the Roman people, he did not wish to be the companion of his madness (Cic., Phil., iii., 3, 6).

Haec Scīpiō cum dīxisset, L. Fūrium repente venientem adspexit, etc., when Serpit deinde res, quae proclivius ad perniciem, cum semel coepit, lābitur, then the thing winds along, and when it has once begun glides swiftly to destruction (Cic., Am., 12, 41).

Deinde cum similis sēnsus exstitit amōris, sī aliquem, etc., secondly, when a like feeling of affection has arisen, if any one, etc. (Cic., Am., 8, 27).

Cum ad vīllam vēnī, hōc ipsum nihil agere et plānē cēssāre mē dēlectat, when I come to my country seat, this very inactivity and absolute idleness charm me (cf. Cic., dē Ōr., ii., 6, 24).

Cum pater familiae inlūstriōre locō nātus dēcēssit, ēius propīnquī conveniunt, when the head of a house of high birth dies, his kinsmen gather together (Caes., B. G., vi., 19).

Cum rosam vīderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur, whenever he saw a rose he thought spring was beginning (Cic., Verr., v., 10, 27).

Plērumque mīlitēs statīvīs castrīs habēbat, nisi cum odōs aut pābulī egestās locum mūtāre subēgerat, he generally had been keeping the soldiers

Scipio had said this, he looked up and suddenly saw Lucius Furius coming (Cic., $R\bar{e}$ $P\bar{u}b$., i., 11, 17).

Cum autem contrahat amīcitiam, ut suprā dīxī, sī qua sīgnificātiō virtūtis ēlūceat, ad quam sē similis animus adplicet et adiungat, id cum contigit, umor exoriātur necesse est, and when, in case as I have said, some indication of merit flashes out, towards which a like nature is drawn to unite itself, a friendship is formed, — when this happens, affection must arise (Cic., Am., 14, 48).

Ut A. Varius, quī est habitus iūdex dūrior, dīcere cōnsēssōrī solēbat, cum datīs testibus aliī tamen citārentur, as Aulus Varius, who was considered an austere judge, used to say to his colleague on the bench, when, after some witnesses had been heard, others were still all the time being called (Cic., Fīn., ii., 19, 62).

Cum in iūs dūcī dēbitōrem vīdissent, undique convolābant, whenever they saw a debtor arrested, they gathered from all sides (Līv., ii., 27, 8).

Neque hērēditātem cūiusquam adiit, nisi cum amīin the same camp, except when miasma or want of fodder had compelled him to change his position (Sall., *Iug.*, 44).

Atque utinam tam in periculō fuisset! cum egŏ iīs, quibus meam salūtem cārissimam esse arbitrābar, inimīcissimīs crūdēlissimīsque ūsus sum, and oh that it had been in such danger! now that I have found those most hostile and cruel to whom I thought my safety was most dear (Cic., Att., iii., 13, 2).

Sunt enim quidam, qui molestas amicitias faciunt, cum ipsi se contemni putant, for there are people who make friendship a bore, when [in that] they keep fancying themselves slighted (Cic., Am., 20, 72).

Quae cum praepōnunt ut sit aliqua rērum sēlectiō, nātūram videntur sequī; cum autem negant ea quicquam ad beātam vītam pertinēre, rūrsus nātūram relinquunt, when [in that] they put forward this doctrine, that there is a choice in things, they seem to follow nature, but in that [when] they maintain that the things have nothing to do with happiness they leave

citiā meruisset, nor did he accept any man's bequests except when they belonged to him through right of friendship (Tac., Ann., ii., 48).

Quod cum māius esse videātur quam īnsānia, tamen ēiusmodī est ut, etc., and although this seems to be greater than insanity, yet its nature is such that, etc. (Cic., Tūsc., iii., 5, 11).

Hie tū mē accūsās quod mē adflīctem, cum ita sim adflīctus, ut nēmō umquam, under these circumstances you upbraid me because I bewail my lot, when I have been tried as no man was ever tried (Cic., Att., iii., 12, 1).

Itaque fāmā et multitūdinis iūdicio moventur, cum id honestum putent, quod ā plērīsque laudētur, therefore they are influenced by what men say and by the judgment of the crowd, when they imagine that right which is approved by the majority (Cic., Tūsc., ii., 26, 63).

Quā caecātī hominēs, cum quaedam etiam praeclāra cuperent, eaque nēscīrent nec ubš nec quālia essent, funditus aliī, etc., and men, blinded by this, while desiring some things really admirable,

nature again (Cic., $F\bar{\imath}n$., iv., 16, 43).

Grātulor tibš, cum tantum valēs apud Dolābellam, I congratulate you in that you have so much influence with Dolabella (Cic., Att., xiv., 17, a, 3).

Quom adfīnitāte vostrā mē arbitrāminī dīgnum, habeō vōbīs, Philtō, māgnam grātiam, in that [since] your family think me worthy of their alliance, Philto, I am very grateful (Plaut., Trin., 504).

Dī tibǐ, Dēmea, bene faciant, quom tē videō nostrae familiae tam ex animō factum velle, the gods bless you, Demea, now that [since] I see you wish our family so thoroughly well (Ter., Ad., 917).

but not knowing either where or what they were, have some of them utterly, etc. (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, iii., 2, 4).

Quae cum ita sint Catilīna perge quō coepistī, since [now that] this is so, Catiline, go on as you have begun (Cic., Cat., i., 5, 10).

[Dionysius], cum in communitus suggestis consistere non auderet, contionari exturri alta solebat, Dionysius, not daring to take his place on the general platforms, used to speak from a high tower (Cic., Tūsc., v., 20, 59).

Cum inimīcitiae fuerint numquam . . . reī pūblicae prōvidēbō, since there never have been enmities . . . I will look out for the country (Cic., Prōv. Cōns., 20, 47).

- a. When cum has the general meaning "whenever," the tense is more commonly one of completed action. (Cf. the examples.)
- b. The meaning of cum is often more exactly defined (especially with the indicative) by the addition of words like $pr\bar{\imath}-mum$, interim, $intere\bar{a}$, $n\bar{o}ndum$, quidem, tamen, etc. (Cf. the examples.)
- 512. Sometimes, by an inversion which also occurs in English, the main statement is put into the *cum* clause, and the (grammatically) principal clause contains the accessory statement. The *cum* clause then stands after the main clause, and usually takes the indicative. Thus:—

INDICATIVE.

Dīxerat hoc ille, cum puer nuntiavit venīre ad eum Laelium domēque iam exīsse, he had just finished speaking, when a slave brought word that Laelius was coming, and had already left the house (Cic., $R\bar{e}$ $P\bar{u}b$., i., 12, 18).

Dies nondum decem intercesserant, cum ille alter filius inf ans necatur, ten days had not yet intervened, when that other infant son was slain (Cic., Clu., 9, 28).

Prīmō āctū placeō, quom intereā rūmor venit datum īrī gladiātōrēs; populus convolat, in the first act I win applause, when suddenly a report comes that there is to be a prize fight, and the people flock thither (Ter., Hec., 39).

thundered forth."

NOTE. The pupil should be cautioned that this inversion does not always take place when the cum clause stands after the main clause.

a. This inversion gives a more lively effect to what is said. Compare in English, "When we reached the middle of the valley, the cannon suddenly thundered forth," and "We had reached the middle of the valley, when suddenly the cannon

513. Cum ... tum pass from the meaning "when ... then" into the meanings "while ... yet," "not only ... but also," "both ... and," and then are often used to connect single words or expressions. (Cf. the last example below.) Thus:—

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Simulat sē eōrum praesidiō cōnfūdere, cum intereā aliud quiddam iam diū māchinōtur, he pretends that he has confidence in their protection, while meantime he has been long concocting another scheme (Cic., Verr., Act i., 6, 15).

Egŏ in castra a. d. VII K. Sept. vēnī, cum intereā superiōribus diēbus ex senātūs-cōnsultō et ēvocātorum fīrmam mānum .et equitātum comparāvissem, I went into camp on the twenty-sixth of August, when meanwhile during the days before I had got together in accordance with the Senate's decree a strong force of retired veterans and cavalry (Cic., Fam., xv., 4, 3).

INDICATIVE.

Cratippum cum audiō lubenter, tum etiam propriam ēius suāvitātem vehementer amplector, I not only hear Cratippus gladly, but even am particularly fond of his peculiar charm of style.

Sed cum multīs in rēbus neglegentiā plāctimur, tum māximē in amīcīs et dīligendīs et colendīs, but while in many things we are punished for carelessness, this is particularly the case in choosing and cultivating friends (Cic., Am., 22, 85).

Ille quidem frūctum omnis ante āctae vītae hodiernō diē māximum cēpit, oum summō cōnsēnsū senātūs tum iūdiciō tuō gravissimō et māximō, as far as he is concerned, he has to-day reaped the richest fruit of all his past life, both through the unanimous approval of the senate and through your most weighty and exalted decision (Cic., Mārc., 1, 3).

CONSTRUCTIONS OF INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

The constructions of indirect discourse include:—

- 1. INDIRECT DISCOURSE proper.
- 2. Indirect questions.
- 3. CLAUSES OF QUOTED CAUSE.
- 4. Other dependent CLAUSES GIVING ANOTHER'S IDEA without any verb of saying expressed.
 - 5. Clauses in the SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

Indirect Discourse Proper.

514. When a person's words or thoughts (whether another person's or the speaker's own) are quoted, not in their exact grammatical form, but in narrative form de-

Consilium tuum cum semper probavissem tum multo magis probavi lēctīs tuīs lītterīs, though I had always approved your plan, I approved it much more after having read your letter.

Cumque plūrimās et māximās commoditātēs amācitia contineat, tum illā nāmārum praestat omnibus, etc., and while friendship includes very many great advantages, it no doubt surpasses all other things in this, that it, etc. (Cic., Am., 7, 23).

pending upon a word of saying or thinking, the quotation is called INDIRECT ($\bar{O}r\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$ obliqua*).

- 515. In indirect discourse: —
- (1.) All subordinate verbs are put in the SUBJUNCTIVE.
- (2.) The main verb is put in the INFINITIVE, except that —
- (3.) Imperatives are put in the SUBJUNCTIVE, and hortatory and dubitative subjunctives retain their mood.

Thus: -

Dīcit hīc sibǐ nōn placēre, quod quaedam nōn inveniantur, quibus sibǐ opus sit, he says he does not like it here, because certain things of which he has need are not found (illī nōn placet, quod . . . nōn inveniuntur, quibus eī opus est).

Dīxit sē nōn crēdere; an fierī id posse, he said he did not believe it; or could this be done? (nōn crēdō; an fierī id potest?)

Dīcit āleam iactam esse; quid faciat? statim proficiscantur exercitusque sequātur, he says the die is cast; what can he do? let them start at once and let the army follow (ālea iacta est; quid faciam? statim proficisciminī exercitusque sequātur).

516. If the verb of saying or thinking upon which an indirect discourse depends denotes PAST time (i. e., is imperfect, historical perfect, or pluperfect), the dependent clauses, as a rule, are all thrown into the past (i. e., the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive †). Thus:—

INDIRECT.

DIRECT.

1. Ad haec Ariovistus respondit:

Iūs esse bellī, ut, quī vīcissent, iīs quōs vīcissent, quem ad modum vellent, quem ad modum {vellent, quem ad modum {vellent}, quem ad modum {vellent},

- * Direct Discourse is called in Latin Orātio rēcta.
- † These tenses, therefore, do not always imply non-fulfillment in conditional clauses quoted, but often merely indicate that a supposed case is thrown into the past.

imperarent: item populum Romanum victīs non ad alterīus praescrīptum, sed ad suum arbitrium imperāre consuēsse. Sī ipse populō Romāno non praescriberet, quem ad modum suō iūre ūterētur. non oportere sese a populo Romāno in suo iūre impedīrī. Haeduōs sibī, quoniam bellī fortūnam temptāssent et armīs congressī āc superātī essent, stīpendiārios esse factōs. Māgnam Caesarem iniūriam facere, quī suō adventū vectīgālia sibī dēteri- $\bar{o}ra$ faceret. Haeduis sē obsidēs redditūrum non esse. neque iīs neque eōrum sociīs iniūriā bellum illātūrum. $s\bar{\imath}$ in $e\bar{o}$ manērent convēnissent stīpendiumque quotannīs penderent; sī id non fecissent, longe iis fraternum nömen populī Römānī āfutūrum. Quod sibi Caesar dēnūntiāret, sē Haeduōrum iniūriās non neglēctūrum, nēminem sēcum sine perniciē contendisse. Cum vellet, congrederētur: intellēctūrum, quid invictī Germānī, exercitātissimī in armīs, quī inter annos quattuordecim tēctum non subissent, virtūte possent.

imperent: item populus Rōmānus victīs non ad alterīus praescrīptum, sed ad suum arbitrium imperāre consuē-Sī ego populo Romāno non praescribo, quem ad modum suō iūre ūtātur. nōn oportet mē ā populō Rōmānō in meō iūre impedīrī. Haeduī mihī, quoniam bellī fortūnam temptārunt et arcongressi $\bar{a}c$ $super\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$ sunt. stīpendiāriī sunt fac- $M\bar{a}gnam$ tū, Caesar. iniūriam facis, quī tuō adventū vectīgālia mihž dēteri-Haeduīs obsidēs ōra facis. non reddam, neque iīs neque eōrum sociīs iniūriā bellum illatūrus sum. $s\bar{\imath}$ inmaneant } quod convēnērunt stipendiumque quotan- $\{\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{pendant} \\ \mathbf{pendent} \end{array}\}$; $s\bar{\imath}$ id $n\bar{o}n$ fecerint, longē iīs frāternum nōmen populī Rōmānī aberit. Quod mihi dēnūntiās, tē Haeduōrum iniūriās non nealēctūrum. nēmō mēcum sine suā perniciē contendit. Cum {voles, } congredere: intellegēs, quid invictī $m\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, exercitātissim $\bar{\imath}$ in armīs, quī inter annos quattuordecim tēctum non {subierunt } virtūte possint (Caes., B. G., i., 36).

- 2. Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblīvīscī vellet, num etiam recentium iniūriārum. quod eō invītō iter per prōvinciam per vim temptāssent, quod Haeduos, quod Ambarros, quod Allobrogas vexāssent, memoriam dēpō-Quod suā vicnere posse? toria tam insolenter gloriarentur quodque tam diū sē impūnē tulisse iniūriās admīrārentur, eodem pertināre.
- 2. Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblīvīscī velim, num etiam recentium iniūriārum. quod mē invītō iter per prōvinciam per vim temptāstis. quod Haeduos, quod Ambarros, quod Allobrogas vexāstis. memoriam $d\bar{e}p\bar{o}nere$ {possum} ? Quod vestrā victoria tam insolenter gloriāminī quodque tam diū vos impūnē tulisse iniūriās admīrāminī, eōdem pertinet (Caes., B. G., i., 14).
- 3. Caesar ad Lingonas lītterās nūntiōsque mīsit :

Nē eos frūmento nēve aliā rē iuvārent; quī sī iūvissent sē eodem loco quo Helvētios, habitūrum. Nē eōs frūmentō nēve aliā rē iūveritis; sī iūveritis vōs eōdem locō quō Helvētiōs habēbō (Caes., B. G., i., 26).

NOTE. For the convenience of the pupil the following translation of the indirect form of the above passages is subjoined:—

1. To this Ariovistus made answer, that it was the right of war for those who had conquered to lay upon those whom they had conquered such commands as they pleased; the Roman people likewise were in the habit of laying commands upon the conquered not at another's dictation, but according to their own judgment. If he did not dictate to the Roman people how they were to use their rights, he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his rights. The Haeduans had been made his tributaries since they had tried the fortune of war and had been met and defeated in battle. That Caesar was guilty of a great wrong in that by his arrival he was diminishing his revenues from tribute. He was not going to restore the Haeduans' hostages to them, nor did he intend to make war upon them or their allies wrongfully [as he would be

doing in case he attacked them] if they stood by their agreement and paid their tribute yearly; if they did not do this, they would find the name of brethren given them by the Roman people very far from being of advantage to them. As to Caesar's threatening him that he would not disregard injuries done to the Haeduans [he would say] that no one had fought with him without bringing destruction upon himself; he might come to an engagement whenever he pleased, and would find out what the unconquerable Germans, who were thoroughly trained soldiers and had not lived under a roof for fourteen years, could accomplish in bravery.

- 2. But if he should be willing to forget the insults of long standing, could he also lay aside the remembrance of the recent wrongs they had done, in that they had tried to force a way through our province against his will, and had harassed the Haeduans, the Ambarri, and the Allobroges? Their boasting so arrogantly of the victory they had won and their surprise at having inflicted injuries so long without rousing vengeance pointed in the same direction.
- 3. Caesar sent a letter and messengers to the Lingones, saying that they were not to aid them with grain or anything else; if they did aid them, he should regard them as on a par with the Helvetians.
- a. Sometimes when the verb on which the Indirect Discourse depends is in a past tense a subordinate subjunctive is retained in the present tense, thus giving a more lively effect. Thus:—

Ad haec Q. Mārcius respondit: ab armīs discēdant, Rōmam supplicēs proficiscantur, to this Quintus Marcius answered, let them withdraw from arms and go as suppliants to Rome; eī lēgātiōnī Ariovistus respondit: sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse; sī quid ille ā sē velit illum ad sē venīre oportēre, to this embassy Ariovistus made answer, that if he had needed anything from Caesar he would have gone to him; if Caesar wanted anything of him he [also] ought to come to him (Caes., B. G., i., 34). Cf. also chapters 14 and 31 of the same book.

Note. By thus using the present tense the writer brings, for the moment, the time when the thing was originally said up to the time when it is quoted. Such a construction represents a sort of half-way stage between completely direct and completely indirect quotation. For a still more marked fusion of the time when a speech was made with the time at which it is quoted see ch. 40 of the same book: factum \(\tilde{e}\)itup hostis periculum patrum nostr\(\tilde{o}\)rum memori\(\tilde{a}\), ucm, Cimbris et Teutonis \(\tilde{a}\) C. Mari\(\tilde{o}\) pulsis, n\(\tilde{o}\) min\(\tilde{o}\)rum memori\(\tilde{a}\), cum, Cimbris et Teutonis \(\tilde{a}\) C. Mari\(\tilde{o}\) pulsis, n\(\tilde{o}\) min\(\tilde{o}\)row memori\(\tilde{a}\) cum ipse imper\(\tilde{a}\)row memory of our fathers, when the Cimbri and Teutones were routed by Gaius Marius and the army seemed to have earned as much glory as the general himself. The clause cum . . . vid\(\tilde{e}\)\(\tilde{o}\)tur is taken out of the indirect discourse and said, as it were, to the reader.

- b. Of the three verbs of saying, $d\bar{\imath}c\bar{o}$ most commonly introduces indirect discourse, but may also introduce direct discourse; $\bar{a}i\bar{o}$ is used almost exclusively for indirect discourse, except in the phrase "ut ait Ennius, Cicerō, etc.;" inquam is used only for direct discourse, and always stands after some word or phrase of the quotation; as, "scīs mē," inquam, "idem sentīre," "you know," said I, "that I hold the same opinion."
- c. Short direct questions like quid crēditis? are generally put in the subjunctive in indirect discourse rather than in the infinitive; quid crēderent, not quid crēdere. (Cf. Līv., vi., 37, 6.)
- d. Relative clauses in which the relative is equivalent to a demonstrative and connective (cf. 451) have the force of independent clauses, and are generally put in the infinitive, in indirect discourse. Thus:—

Unumquemque nostrum [cēnsent] ēius mundī esse partem; ex quō illud nātūrā consequī. ut, etc., each one of us, they think, is a part of that universe: from which it naturally follows that, etc. (Cic., $F\bar{\imath}n$., iii., 19, 64); quibus proeliīs calamitātibusque frāctōs... coāctōs esse $S\bar{\imath}quan\bar{\imath}s$ obsidēs dare, and that, broken by these battles and disasters, they had been obliged to give hostages to the Sequani (Caes., B. G., i., 31).

So also sometimes other clauses which are dependent in form but independent in force; as:—

Saepe dictum est, ut mare, quod suā nātūrā tranquillum sit,

ventōrum vī agitārī atque turbārī, sīc populum Rōmānum, etc., it has often been said that as the sea, which in its own nature is peaceful, is roused and put in commotion by the force of the winds, so the Roman people, etc. (Cic., Clu., 49, 138).

e. Comparative clauses after quam more commonly appear in the infinitive (when the clause containing the other term of the comparison has the infinitive), but sometimes they have the subjunctive with or without ut. Thus:—

Addit etiam sē prius occīsum īrī ab eō quam mē violātum īrī, he adds also that he would allow himself to be killed by him sooner than have me injured (Cic., Att., ii., 20, 2); sē mīliēns moritūrōs potius quam ut tantum dēdecoris admīttī patiantur, that they would die a thousand times rather than suffer such disgraceful action to be taken (Līv., iv., 2, 8).

NOTE. Cicero prefers the infinitive, Livy the subjunctive alone or with ut; Caesar has the infinitive and the subjunctive without ut.

f. Subordinate clauses (mostly relative) may be retained in the indicative if they contain explanatory statements which are true independent of the quotation, or are merely a part of the definition of something mentioned. Thus:—

Per explōrātōrēs certior factus est ex eā parte vīcī, quam Gallīs concēsserat, omnēs noctā discēssisse, he was informed by spies that everybody had left by night the part of the village which he had given up to the Gauls (Caes., B. G., iii., 2); quis potest esse tam praeceps quī neget haec omnia quae vidēmus deōrum potestāte administrārī, who can be so rash as to deny that all this world we see about us is regulated by the power of gods? (Cic., Cat., iii., 9, 21).

g. Sometimes in the same quotation a change is made from indirect to direct discourse. Thus:—

Tālī modō accūsātus ad haec respondit: quod castra mōvisset, factum inopiā pābulī... "Hacc ut intellegātis" inquit "sincērē ā mē prōnūntiārī, audīte Rōmānōs mīlitēs," accused in this fashion, he made answer to the accusation, that as to his having moved his camp, this was due to want of fodder... "And that you may know that I am sincere in saying this,"

said he, "listen to [the testimony of these] Roman soldiers" (Caes., B. G., vii., 20).

- 517. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT undergo a slight change of form in indirect discourse, as follows:—
- (1.) In the active voice generally the apodosis, if imperfect subjunctive, becomes future infinitive (i. e., factūrum, etc., esse); if pluperfect, it becomes factūrum, etc., fuisse. Thus:—

[Titūrius clāmitābat] neque aliter Carnūtēs interficiendī Tasgetī cōnsilium fuisse captūrōs, neque Eburōnēs, sī ille adesset, tantā cum contemptiōne nostrī ad castra ventūrōs esse, Titurius kept crying out that otherwise the Carnutes would not have formed the plan of slaying Tasgetius, and that the Eburones, if he were there, would not come to camp with such marked contempt for us (Caes., B. G., v., 29); an cēnsēs mē tantōs labōrēs sūsceptūrum fuisse, sī īsdem fīnibus glōriam meam quibus vītam essem terminātūrus, or do you suppose I should have taken such toils upon myself if I had expected to bound my glory by the same limits as my life? (Cic., Sen., 23, 82).

(2.) In the passive voice regularly, and in the active occasionally, the circumlocution $fut\bar{u}rum$ esse (fore) ut is used for present conditions contrary to fact, $fut\bar{u}rum$ fuisse ut for past conditions. The subjunctive used with this ut is then in both cases imperfect. Thus:

Nisi eō ipsō tempore quīdam nūntiī dē Caesaris victōriā per dispositōs equitēs essent adlātī, exīstimābant plerīque futūrum fuisse ut [oppidum] āmītterētur, most people thought that unless certain messages about Caesar's victory had been brought at that very time by horsemen stationed at intervals for the purpose, the town would have been lost (Caes., B. C., iii., 101).

a. Occasionally some form of posse, $d\bar{e}b\bar{e}re$, or the like, or a gerundive, takes the place of the future participle in the above expressions. Thus:—

Platonem existimo, si genus forense dicendi tracture voluisset gravissime potuisse dicere, I judge that if Plato had chosen to take up the forensic kind of oratory, he could have made a most effective speaker; apparet non recipiendum fuisse Tarentum, nisi ūmīssum foret, it would seem that Tarentum would not have had to be retaken if it had not been lost. (Cf. also 477 c.)

NOTE. With regard to the apodoses of conditions other than those contrary to fact it should be observed that the future indicative and present subjunctive are represented in the indirect discourse by the future infinitive, the future perfect indicative and the perfect subjunctive by fore ut with the perfect *subjunctive in the active voice, by the perfect participle with fore in passives and deponents. Thus:—

Dīcit sī rogēs sē factūrum esse, he says he will (or would) do it if you ask (or should ask) him,—in direct discourse, sī rogēs (rogābis)... faciat (faciet).

Spērō fore ut si negōtia mea bene cēsserint mox ad vōs redierim, I hope that if my affairs turn out well, I shall soon come back to you, — in direct discourse, si cēsserint . . . redierim (redierō).

Hōc possum dicere, mē satis adeptum fore, si... nūllum in mē periculum redundārit, this I can say, that I shall have obtained enough if no danger flows back upon me,— in direct discourse, satis adeptus erō (erim)...si... redundārit (Cic., Sull., 9, 27).

Indirect Questions.

518. Indirect Questions take the subjunctive. Thus:—

Docē $m\bar{e}$, igitur, unde sint, ubǐ sint, quālēs sint, tell me, then, whence [the gods] come, where they are, what their nature is (Cic., N. D., i., 23, 65); id utrum $ill\bar{\iota}$ sentiant, an $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$ simulent, $t\bar{u}$ intellegēs, you will understand whether that is their real opinion or whether they are in fact pretending (Cic.); $s\bar{\iota}$ quālis sit animus, ipse animus nēsciet, if the mind itself shall not know what sort of a thing the mind is (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 22, 53).

- a. The expressions nēsciō quis, nēsciō quō modō, nēsciō unde, etc., are generally equivalent to "some one," "somehow,"
 - * Pluperfect when the verb of saying is past (see 516).

etc., and therefore having lost their interrogative force, have no influence upon the mood of the verb which follows them. Thus:—

Sed cāsū nēsciō quō in ea tempora aetās nostra incidit, but by some chance my life has fallen upon a time, etc. (Cic.).

b. So also mīrum quam, mīrum quantum, nimium quantum; as:—

Salēs quī in dīcendō nimium quantum valent, wit, which has some tremendous power in oratory (Cic., $\bar{O}r.$, 26, 87).

c. In early Latin the indicative was used in indirect questions, and this use frequently occurs in Plautus and Terence. Thus:—

Scīre volō, quoi reddidistī, I want to know to whom you gave it (Plaut., Curc., 543); vidē avāritia quid facit, see what greed does (Ter., Ph., 358).

d. Indirect questions are sometimes, by a development from conditional clauses which also occurs in English, introduced by $s\bar{\imath} =$ "if," "whether." Thus:—

Quaesīvit iterum sī cum Rōmānīs mīlitūre licēret, his second question was, whether [if] he might serve in the Roman army (Līv., xl., 49, 6); mīrābar hōc sī sīc abīret et erī semper lēnitās verēbar quōrsum ēvāderet, I wondered if [whether] this would [not] come out so, and was always apprehensive as to what master's easy discipline would result in (Ter., An., 175).

e. Sometimes, especially in the comic poets, a direct question is repeated with surprise by the person to whom it is addressed, and thus becomes indirect and is put in the subjunctive depending on the idea "do you ask." Thus:—

Quid nunc faciundum cēnsēs? Tr. Egő quid cēnseam? What do you think ought to be done now? Tr. What do I think? (Plaut., Mōst., 556).

NOTE. Indirect questions are not to be confounded with dependent relative clauses, though sometimes the form is the same. Thus:—

Dicam quae sentiam (interrogative) = quae sentio? dicam, What do I

think? I will tell; dicam quae sentiam (relative) = dicam ea quae sentiō or sentiam, I will say the things I think.

For the use of the interrogative particles in indirect questions, see 579 ff.

Causal Clauses with Quod, Quia, Quoniam.

519. In causal clauses with quod or quia,* "because," and quoniam, "since," the indicative simply asserts (or denies) one thing as the cause or reason of another; the subjunctive represents the cause as one assigned by some one other than the speaker or writer, — generally by the subject of the main clause.

NOTE. It is to be observed that the subjunctive does not deny (even by implication) that the reason given is the true one. On the contrary, the subjunctive may be used of that which the speaker believes to be the cause of an action, but which he does not wish to state positively as such.

INDICATIVE.

Ita fit ut adsint proptereā, quod officium sequontur, taceant autem, idcircō quia perīculum vītant, so they are here because they are thus performing a duty, but they are silent for the reason that they shun danger (Cic., $R\bar{o}sc.\ Am.,\ 1,\ 1$).

Quod spīrātis, quod vōcem mīttitis, quod formās hominum habētīs, indīgnantur, they are angry because you breathe and speak and have the shapes of men (Līv., iv., 3, 8).

Quō quidem etiam magis sum exercitus, nōn quia mul-

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Laudat Āfricānum Panaetius, quod fuerit abstinēns, Panaetius praises Africanus for his self-control (Cic., Off., ii., 22, 76).

An paenitet vos quod salvom exercitum trādūxerim? do ye regret my having brought the army over in safety? (Caes., B. C., ii., 32).

Bene māiōrēs accubitionem epulārem amīcorum, quia vītae coniūnctionem habēret, convīvium nōmināvērunt, our ancestors did well in giving to the reclining of friends together at a banquet the name "convivium," a living together, from

^{*} Quod is much commoner than quia or quoniam, especially with the subjunctive,

tīs dēbeō, sed quia saepe concurrunt, etc., therefore I am even more exercised, not because I am indebted to many people, but because there often come together, etc. (Cic., Planc., 32, 78).

Vōs, Quirītēs, quoniam iam nox est, in vestra tēcta discēdite, do you, fellow citizens, since the night is now come, depart to your houses (Cic., Cat., iii., 12, 29).

its involving a community of life (Cic., Sen., 13, 45).

Rēgnō nōn aequō animō carēbās; est autem impudēns lūctus maerōre sē cōnficientis, quod imperāre nōn liceat līberīs, you did not bear with calmness the loss of power. But his grief is shameless who consumes himself with sadness because he may not have sway over freemen (Cic., Tūsc., iii., 12, 26).

Iactūtum in condicionibus nēquīquam dē Tarquiniīs in rēgnum restituendīs, magis quia id negāre ipse nequīverat Tarquiniīs, quam quod negūtum īrī sibǐ ab Rōmūnīs īgnōrāret, mention was made in the terms — though to no purpose — of restoring the Tarquins to the throne, more because he had himself been unable to refuse that to the Tarquins, than because he did not know well enough that the Romans would reject the proposition (Līv., ii., 13, 3).

520. $D\bar{\imath}c\bar{o}$, $put\bar{o}$, etc., are sometimes put in the subjunctive in a causal clause, when the reason is really contained in an infinitive dependent upon them. Thus:—

Cum enim Hannibalis permīssū exīsset dē castrīs, rediit paulō post, quod sē oblītum nēsciō quid dīceret, for when he had gone out from the camp with Hannibal's permission, he returned a little later because, as he said, he had forgotten something (Cic., Off., i., 13, 40); quī istinc veniunt, superbiam tuam accūsant, quod negent tē percontantibus respondēre, those who come from there criticise your arrogance because, as they say, you do not answer people who question you (Cic., Fam., vii., 16, 3); ex hīs Bellovacī suum numerum nōn complēvērunt, quod sē suō nōmine atque arbitriō cum Rōmānīs bellum gestūrōs dīcerent, of these the Bellovaci did

not fill out their contingent, because, as they said, they were going to fight with the Romans on their own account and under their own direction (Caes., B. G., vii., 75).

521. The subjunctive is used with $n\bar{o}n$ quod and $n\bar{o}n$ quo, meaning "not that" (not because), negative $n\bar{o}n$ quod $n\bar{o}n$, $n\bar{o}n$ quo $n\bar{o}n$, $n\bar{o}n$ quo quo non, $n\bar{o}n$ quo that).*

Thus:—

Etsī non idcircō eōrum ūsum dīmīseram, quod iīs succonsērem sed quod eōrum mē subpudēbat, although I had not given up their intimacy because I was angry with them but because I was rather ashamed of them (Cic., Fam., ix., 1, 2); non quō meā quidem iam intersit . . . sed, etc., not that it makes a difference to me any longer . . . but, etc. (Cic., dē Ōr., ii., 18, 74); etsī eō tē adhūc cōnsiliō ūsum intellegō, ut id reprehendere non audeam, non quīn ab eō ipse dissentiam, sed quod eā tē sapientiā esse iūdicō, although I see that you have thus far adopted a course which I should not venture to criticise, not that I do not myself hold a different view, but because I have such confidence in your wisdom (Cic., Fam., iv., 7, 1).

For quod= "the fact that," introducing substantive clauses, see 540, 4.

Clauses giving the Thought of Another.

522. The subjunctive is used to represent the thing said in a subordinate clause as something in the mind of a person other than the speaker or writer, — generally the subject of the main clause (implied indirect discourse). Thus:—

Paetus omnēs librōs quōs frāter suus relīquisset, mih \tilde{t} d \bar{o} nāvit, Paetus gave me all the books which his brother had left [i. e., he was influenced to give them by the fact that his

* Non quia, non quia non, are also used, but are very rare in classical Latin. Occasionally all of these conjunctions, except non quo, non quo non, are found with an indicative, thus marking the reason distinctly as the actual one.

brother, etc.] (Cic., Att., ii., 1, 12); $D\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}us$, dum ipse abesset, pontis $c\bar{u}st\bar{o}d\bar{e}s$ $rel\bar{\imath}quit$ $pr\bar{\imath}ncip\bar{e}s$, $qu\bar{o}s$ $s\bar{e}cum$ ex $I\bar{o}ni\bar{a}$ $d\bar{u}xerat$, Darius left as guards of the bridge while he should be absent, chieftains whom he had brought with him from Ionia; $\bar{A}g\bar{e}sil\bar{u}us$ $mult\bar{o}$ $gl\bar{o}ri\bar{o}sius$ $d\bar{u}xit$, $s\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{\imath}nstit\bar{u}t\bar{\imath}s$ patriae $p\bar{a}ruisset$ quam $s\bar{\imath}$ $bell\bar{o}$ superasset Asiam, Agesilaus thought it a much more glorious thing if he obeyed the established laws of his country than if he conquered Asia in war (cf. Nep., $\bar{A}g\bar{e}s.$, 4).

Subjunctive by Attraction.

523. A clause depending upon a subjunctive (or an infinitive), and denoting something which may be regarded as an integral part of the thought expressed in the clause on which it depends, generally takes the subjunctive, though, except for such dependence, it would take the indicative. Thus:—

 $M\bar{o}s$ est $Ath\bar{e}n\bar{i}s$ laudārī in $c\bar{o}nti\bar{o}ne$ $e\bar{o}s$, $qu\bar{i}$ sint in proeli $\bar{i}s$ interfectī, it is customary at Athens for a eulogy to be delivered in the public assembly over those who have been killed in battle (Cic., $\bar{O}r$., 44, 151); in Hort $\bar{e}nsi\bar{o}$ memoria fuit tanta, ut, quae $s\bar{e}cum$ comment $\bar{u}tus$ esset, ea sine $scr\bar{i}pt\bar{o}$ verb $\bar{i}s$ $e\bar{i}sdem$ redderet, quibus $c\bar{o}git\bar{a}visset$, Hortensius had such a powerful memory, that without having written them down he could give expression to the things he had turned over in his mind, using the same words in which he had thought them (cf. Cic., $Br\bar{u}t$., 88, 301); $f\bar{i}ebat$ ut $Alcibiad\bar{e}s$ omnium ocul $\bar{o}s$, $quoti\bar{e}nscumque$ in $p\bar{u}blicum$ prodisset, ad $s\bar{e}$ converteret, Alcibiades used to attract the gaze of all the people every time he went out.

Note. The uses of the subjunctive given in the last two paragraphs (522 and 523) are merely varieties of some of the more general uses treated above. In many cases they might be explained as Characteristic subjunctives. It is, however, worth while to put them into separate categories, because the considerations given show the reason why the subjunctive is chosen in the given case, while in cases otherwise similar, but in which these considerations are not present, the indicative is often found where a Characteristic subjunctive might be expected.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

The following points in the use of the tenses in subjunctive clauses should be observed:—

- 524. When the thing said has really the nature of an occurrence (although it is expressed, as far as the mood goes, simply as an idea), the tenses of the subjunctive mark practically * the same differences of time as the tenses of the indicative.
 - a. This is the case with —
 - (1.) Clauses of Result.
 - (2.) Temporal Clauses (and those developed from them).
 - (3.) Clauses of Concession, with quamvīs, licet, etc.
 - (4.) The constructions of Indirect Discourse. Thus: —

Sōcratēs tam sapiēns erat ut hodiē quoque honōrētur, Socrates was so wise that he is honored even to-day; tam ācriter pūgnāvērunt ut paene omnēs occīderentur, they fought so desperately that nearly all were slain; haec verba ita excellentia sunt ut deō alicui tribuerentur, these words are so admirable that they used to be attributed to some god.

Cum Athēnīs essem, Zēnōnem saepe audiēbam, when I was at Athens I often heard Zeno.

 $H \check{o} c \ d\bar{i} c it \ quod \ v \bar{e} r u m$ sit, he says this because it is, as he thinks, true.

525. But in the various constructions of indirect discourse, if the word upon which a subjunctive depends refers to past time, the subjunctive is regularly drawn into the same time (i. e., is made imperfect or pluperfect). Thus:—

Tum östendit quanta esset vīs conscientiae, then he showed

* In these uses the subjunctive has lost its modality and gained in tense quality (as has been said in 483, c, with the note before and after), but, scientifically speaking, this exchange was never quite complete enough to make the tense quality of this mood absolutely identical with that of the indicative.

how great the power of consciousness of guilt is; $h\bar{\imath}s$ $m\bar{o}s$ erat $omn\bar{e}s$ $qu\bar{\imath}$ ad $\bar{\imath}nsulam$ $\bar{\imath}ps\bar{o}rum$ accessissent statim $interfic\bar{\imath}$, these people had the custom of immediately killing all who approached their island; $laud\bar{a}bat$ $\bar{A}fric\bar{a}num$ Panaetius quod $abstin\bar{e}ns$ esset, Panaetius used to praise Africanus for his self-control.

NOTE. This tendency arises, perhaps, from a desire for symmetry of expression. The same thing is occasionally shown in dependent indicative clauses (see 470, 3), and is at the bottom of the so-called subjunctive by attraction. A similar attraction of tense occurs in English also, though not with the same regularity as in Latin. See the second example above. Also compare with each other the two forms in which each of the following sentences may be expressed:—

That battle showed what unaided valor CAN do.

That battle showed what unaided valor COULD do.

If he were here, he would do what the occasion DEMANDS.

If he were here, he would do what the occasion DEMANDED.

- 526. When the thing said is not thought of as an occurrence at all, but only as an idea in the mind of the speaker or writer, the primary tenses of the subjunctive are used in speaking of a present (or future) situation, the secondary tenses in speaking of a past situation. The perfect and pluperfect differ from the present and imperfect only in their implication of completed action.
 - a. This is the case with: -
 - (1.) Subjunctives in Independent Sentences.*
- (2.) Conditional clauses * (including Concessions and Comparisons).
- (3.) Clauses of Purpose (whether pure purpose or substantive clauses).

Thus, haud facile discernās, like the English "you cannot easily tell," applies to a present situation; haud facile discernerēs, like "you could not easily tell," applies to a past situation. So, hunc librum tibš dō, ut eum legās, I give you this

* The use of the imperfect subjunctive to denote a wish or a supposition unfulfilled in present time is only an apparent exception, and has been sufficiently treated in 473, a, and 477, a.

book to read, indicates a present purpose; hunc librum tibi dedī, ut eum legerēs, implies a past purpose (i. e., what was the purpose at the time of giving).

NOTE. In these uses, as there is no question of the occurrence of anything, there is no definite time relation to the moment of speaking or writing, as when the indicative is used, or as there is (by implication) in the cases treated under 524, and the mood quality of the subjunctive is much more marked than its tense quality.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

527. The IMPERATIVE MOOD is used to express directly commands, requests, and advice. Thus:—

 $H\bar{u}c$ ades, come here (Verg., Ecl., 2, 45).

Nosce $t\bar{e}$, know thyself (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 22, 52).

Aequam mementō servāre mentem, remember to keep an unruffled mind (Hor., Carm., ii., 3, 1).

- a. The negative is $n\bar{e}$ for "not," $n\bar{e}ve$ for "nor" or "and not." $N\bar{o}n$ and neque are rare, and occur chiefly in poetry.
- b. The future imperative expresses the command, etc., more mildly than the present. But for the missing present of sciō, meminī, and of habeō meaning "think," the future forms are used scītō, scītōte, mementō, mementōte, habētō, habētōte.
- c. The third person of the future occurs only in laws and wills.
- d. Fac, fac ut, $c\bar{u}r\bar{a}$ ut, are used with a subjunctive to express a command more strongly; velim, $n\bar{o}lim$, $m\bar{a}lim$ (cf. 473, c, and 491), to express one less strongly, than the imperative. The future indicative is also sometimes used, as in English.
- e. $Qu\bar{i}n$, why not, with the present indicative, is sometimes equivalent to a command; as, $qu\bar{i}n$ accipis? = take it (lit., why don't you take it?) (Ter., Heaut., 832).
- 528. Prohibitions are expressed by the present imperative only in poetry, by the future imperative only in laws, wills, precepts, etc. Thus:—

Nē crēde $col\bar{o}r\bar{\imath}$, trust not the color (Verg., Ecl., 2, 17);

hominem mortuom in urbe ne sepelito neve urito, give neither burial nor cremation to the dead within the city (Laws of the XII. Tables).

529. Otherwise PROHIBITIONS take: —

- (1.) In the second person:—
- a. $N\bar{e}$, with the *perfect* subjunctive (for a particular case only); as, $h\delta c$ nē fēceris, $M\bar{a}rce$, do not do this thing, Marcus.
- b. $N\bar{e}$, with the *present* subjunctive (for a general case only); as, $h\bar{o}c$ $n\bar{e}$ faciās, do this not (i. e., nobody must do it).
 - c. $N\bar{o}l\bar{i}$, with the infinitive; as, $n\bar{o}l\bar{i}$ obl $\bar{i}v\bar{i}sc\bar{i}$, do not forget.
- d. $Cav\bar{e}$, with the subjunctive; as, $cav\bar{e}$ $f\bar{e}st\bar{\imath}n\bar{e}s$, do not hurry.
- e. Fac $n\bar{e}$, with the subjunctive (in colloquial speech). Thus: fac $n\bar{e}$ quid aliud cūrēs, nisi ut convalēscās, do not attend to anything but the recovery of your health (Cic., Fam., xvi., 11, 1).
 - (2.) In the third person: —

 $N\bar{e}$, with the present subjunctive; as, $d\bar{o}n\bar{i}s$ imp $i\bar{i}$ nē $pl\bar{a}$ - $c\bar{a}re$ audeant $de\bar{o}s$, let not the wicked presume to try to propitiate the gods with gifts.

Compare also 472, 2, and 472, a, b.

INFINITIVE.

NOTE. The INFINITIVE has the nature of a noun, in that it may be used as the subject or object of various verbs, or in apposition with a pronoun; it has the nature of a verb, in that it admits distinctions of tense, is modified by adverbs, not adjectives, and like the finite verb governs oblique cases.

SUBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE.

530. The SUBJECT of an infinitive is put in the accusative. Thus:—

Ad rem pūblicam pertinet mē conservārī, it concerns the interests of the state that I should be saved (Cic.); $vid\bar{e}bat$ id $n\bar{o}n$ posse $fier\bar{i}$, he saw that it could not be done (Nep.).

a. But the infinitive is sometimes used in lively narration instead of the (historical) perfect indicative, and then its subject is in the NOMINATIVE (historical infinitive). Thus:—

Interim cottīdiē Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, meanwhile Caesar daily demanded grain of the Haeduans (Caes., B. G., 1, 16); nōs pavidī trepidāre metū, panicstricken we hurry about in alarm (Verg., Ae., 2, 685).

INFINITIVE AS SUBJECT.

531. The infinitive, either with or without a subject, may be the SUBJECT of a verb. Thus:—

Difficile est amicitiam manere, $s\bar{\imath}$ \bar{a} virtute $d\bar{e}f$ eceris, it is hard for friendship to abide, if you fall from virtue (Cic., Am., 11, 37).

Mūius dēdecus est parta āmīttere quam omnīnō nōn parāvisse, it is a greater disgrace to lose what you have acquired than not to have made any acquisitions at all (Sall., Iug., 31, 17); numquam igitur est ūtile peccāre, to do wrong is therefore never expedient (Cic., Off., iii., 15, 64).

- a. The infinitive is used as subject chiefly with est, erat, etc., and a predicate noun or adjective, or with certain impersonal verbs, such as libet, licet, oportet, vidētur, piget, pudet, placet, praestat, rēfert, interest, convenit, fugit, iuvat, etc.*
- b. The infinitive may of course also be equivalent to a predicate nominative; as:—

Impune quaelibet facere, id est regem esse, to do with impunity whatever one will, that is to be king (Sall.).

- c. When the infinitive used with *licet* and such words has a predicate adjective or noun with it, this is generally put in the *dative*, whether there is a dative of indirect object ex-
- * With verbs like oportet, which, strictly speaking, have the subject involved in the verb idea (i. e., impersonals in the narrowest sense), the infinitive is in origin not a subject infinitive but a complementary infinitive (see 532). These infinitives, however, became so fused with the subject infinitive, and thereby lost their resemblance to other complementary infinitives so thoroughly, that it seems most practical to treat them as is here done.

pressed with *licet* or not; but sometimes it is put in the accusative. Thus:—

Licuit esse ōtiōsō Themistoclē, it was in Themistocles' power to be inactive (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 15, 33); $sib\check{t}$ $v\bar{t}tam$ $f\bar{v}liae$ $su\bar{a}$ $c\bar{a}ri\bar{o}rem$ fuisse, $s\bar{\imath}$ līberae $\bar{a}c$ pudīcae vīvere licitum fuisset, [he said] that his daughter's life would have been dearer to him than his own, if she could have lived in freedom and virtue (Līv., iii., 50, 6).

Quod $s\bar{\imath}$ $c\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}$ $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}n\bar{o}$ licet esse Gāditānum, and if a Roman citizen may be [also] a citizen of Gades (Cic., Balb., 12, 29).

For the subjunctive with impersonals, see 494, a, and 497.

COMPLEMENTARY INFINITIVE.

532. The infinitive without a subject is used with several classes of words which require a further action of the same subject to complete the meaning (complementary infinitive). Thus:—

Hōc queō dīcere, this I can say (Cic., Sen., 10, 32); haec vītāre cupimus, this we wish to avoid (Cic.); $po\bar{e}t\bar{a}s$ omn $\bar{n}n\bar{o}$ $n\bar{o}n$ $c\bar{o}nor$ attingere, I do not attempt to touch the poets at all (Cic., $d\bar{e}$ $\bar{U}r.$, ii., 14, 61).

- a. Such are verbs denoting ability, obligation, intention, or endeavor; also verbs meaning begin, continue, cease, abstain, learn (to),* remember (to),* understand, determine, dare, be afraid (to),* hesitate, be wont.
- b. If a complementary infinitive has a predicate noun or adjective, this agrees in case with the subject of the verb on which the infinitive depends. Thus:—

Audē sapiēns esse, dare to be a philosopher; solet trīstis $vid\bar{e}r\bar{\imath}$, he is apt to seem sad; iubet eum virum esse audēre, he bids him dare to be a man. Cf. also 329, b.

For the subjunctive with some of these verbs, see 484 ff. For the infinitive with a subject after verbs of wishing, etc., see 533, 3.

* In the mannings learn remember he afraid that (comothing) is so an

* In the meanings learn, remember, be afraid, that (something) is so and so, these verbs of course take other constructions. (See 515 ff.; also 490, and 492).



INFINITIVE AS OBJECT.

- 533. The infinitive with a subject is used as the OBJECT of certain classes of verbs. Thus:—
- (1.) With verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, perceiving (verba sentiendī et dēclārandī); as:—

Dīcit sē $cr\bar{a}s$ ventūrum esse, he says he will come to-morrow; $centuri\bar{o}n\bar{e}s$ nihil temere agendum esse exīstimābant, the centurions thought that nothing ought to be done inconsiderately; $aud\bar{v}\bar{v}$ $t\bar{e}$ $v\bar{e}nisse$, I heard you had come; sentit igitur animus sē . . . $su\bar{a}$ $v\bar{v}$, $n\bar{o}n$ $ali\bar{e}n\bar{a}$, movērī, the mind therefore perceives that its activity is from its own force, not from an outside force (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 23, 55).

(2.) With verbs of DETERMINING, DECREEING, and the like; as: —

Metellus statuit aliō mōre bellum gerendum esse, Metellus determined that the war must be carried on in another fashion.

(3.) With verbs of WISHING (mostly when a new subject is introduced), and with $iube\bar{o}$ and $vet\bar{o}$. Thus:—

Hōc velim intellegī, I should like to have this understood (Cic.); lēgātī quod erant appellātī superbius, Corinthum patrēs vestrī . . . exstīnctum esse voluērunt, your fathers insisted on the destruction of Corinth because their ambassadors had been addressed rather arrogantly (Cic., Lēg. Mān., 5, 11); mē amārī volō, I wish to be loved; iubet nōs Pỹthius Apollō nōscere nōsmet ipsōs, the Pythian Apollo bids us know ourselves; lēgātōs Caesar discēdere vetuerat, Caesar had forbidden the ambassadors to depart (Caes., B. G., 2, 20).

(4.) With verbs of emotion and feeling; as: --

Gaudeō tē salvom vēnisse, I am glad that you have arrived safely; Antōnius sē similem esse Catilīnae glōriārī solēbat, Antonius used to boast that he was like Catiline; multī peccāsse sē nōn anguntur, obiūrgārī molestē ferunt, many

people are not distressed that they have done wrong, but take it ill to be found fault with; mīror * tē ad mē nihil scrībere, I wonder that you do not write to me at all.

(5.) With verbs of hoping, promising, vowing, threatening, swearing, the *future* infinitive is regularly used. Thus:—

Spērō tē id factūrum esse, I hope you will do so; prōmī-sit sē ventūrum esse, he promised to come; tōtam sē urbem dēlētūrum esse minātur, he threatens to destroy the entire town; numquam amīcum sē Rōmānīs futūrum esse iūrābat, he swore he would never be a friend to the Romans.

NOTE. This use of the infinitive is the regular construction of indirect discourse. (See 515 ff.)

For the subjunctive with some of these verbs, see 484 ff.

INFINITIVE WITH DICOR, VIDEOR, FERTUR, ETC.

534. Several verbs, which in the active take an accusative and infinitive, are used personally in the passive rather than impersonally,† the subject-accusative of the infinitive thus becoming the subject-nominative of the finite verb. Thus:—

Dīcor vir probus esse, I am said to be an upright man; vetāmur hoc facere, we are forbidden to do this; videor diem illum vidēre, I seem to see that day; Numae rēgnum pācātum esse trāditur, Numa's reign is said to have been a peaceful one.

- a. A predicate word with the infinitive in this use is of course nominative, as in the first example.
- b. In poetry, sometimes a predicate word is put in the nominative (by a Greek idiom) after an active verb of saying; as:—

Phasēlus ille, quem vidētis, hospitēs, āit fuisse nāvium celerrimus, that skiff you see, there yonder, friends, doth say, she was of boats the swiftest in her day (Cat., 4, 1).

- * Cf. also substantive quod clauses, 540, 4.
- $\ensuremath{^{\uparrow}}$ The impersonal construction also occurs, but chiefly with the gerundive or perfect participle.



OTHER USES OF THE INFINITIVE.

535. The infinitive (generally with the interrogative ne) is used in EXCLAMATIONS. Thus:—

 $M\bar{e}ne$ inceptō desistere victam, I, defeated, abandon my undertaking! (Verg., Aen., 1, 37); quemquamne hominem in animō instituere, that any man should take the determination! (Ter., Ad., 38).

Cf. the subjunctive, with main verb omitted, 482, d, and 492, c.

536. The infinitive retains its original use of expressing a purpose in a few expressions. Thus:—

- (1.) With $habe\bar{o}$, $d\bar{o}$, $ministr\bar{o}$, in a few passages; as:—

 Tantum habe \bar{o} pollicer \bar{i} , I have so much to promise (Cic., Fam., i., 5, a, 3).
- (2.) With parātus and suētus (īnsuētūs), used as adjectives. Thus:—

Omnia perpetī parātus, ready to endure all; īnsuētus $v\bar{e}ra$ audīre, unaccustomed to hear the truth (Līv., xxxi., 18, 3).

a. In poetry a great many adjectives are used with the infinitive, where we might rather expect a gerund or a subjunctive clause. Thus:—

 $C\bar{e}dere\ n\bar{e}scius$, unknowing how to yield (Hor., Carm., i., 6, 6); avidī commīttere $p\bar{u}gnam$, eager for the fray (Ovid., M., 5, 75); $certa\ mor\bar{\imath}$, bent upon death (Verg., Aen., 4, 564); $d\bar{\imath}gnus\ am\bar{a}ri$, worthy to be loved (Verg., Ecl., 5, 89).

- b. A rare case of the use of the infinitive as a noun is: ut inter optime valere et gravissime aegrotare nihil prorsus dicerent interesse, so that they said there was absolutely no difference between being perfectly well and most seriously ill (Cic., Fin., ii., 13, 43). Cf. beate vivere vestrum quale est! your living happily, what does it amount to?
- c. The infinitive of purpose depending upon a verb is occasionally used by the poets; as:—

Prōteus pecus ēgit altōs vīsere montēs; Proteus drove his herds to visit the high mountains (Hor., Carm., i., 2, 7).

OMISSION OF THE INFINITIVE.

537. Esse (and fuisse),* especially as elements of the future active and perfect passive infinitives, are often omitted, particularly after verbs of saying or thinking; as:—

 $V\bar{o}s\ c\bar{o}gn\bar{o}v\bar{i}\ fort\bar{e}s$ [esse], I have found you brave; $adul\bar{e}scent\bar{i}\ m\bar{o}rem\ gestum$ [esse] oportuit, the young gentleman should have been humored (Ter., Ad., 214); $pr\bar{o}m\bar{i}sit\ s\bar{e}\ vent\bar{u}rum$ [esse], he promised to come.

a. In a relative clause, an infinitive is sometimes omitted when it can be supplied from the verb of the main clause; as:—

Quōs voluit omnēs interfēcit [sc. interficere], he killed all whom he chose [sc. to kill].

Tenses of the Infinitive.

538. In the constructions of indirect discourse (real or implied), the tenses of the infinitive represent the action as past, present, or future, with reference to the word of saying. They correspond to the tenses of the indicative as follows:—

Pres. infin. = pres. indic.
Perf. " = past " (imperf., perf., or pluper.).
Fut. " = fut. "

- a. With $memin\bar{\imath}$ (and occasionally other words) the present infinitive is used to represent an imperfect indicative; as, $h\bar{o}c$ $m\bar{e}$ memin $\bar{\imath}$ dicere, I remember saying this, thus denoting a recollection of the progress of an action. If the $mere\ fact$ is remembered, the perfect infinitive is used; as, meministis $m\bar{e}$ ita distribuisse causam, you remember I divided the case in this way.
- b. Instead of the future infinitive is often used futūrum esse ut (or fore ut) with a subjunctive, always when the given verb has no future participle. Thus:—

Numquam putāvī fore ut supplex ad tē venīrem, I never

* Fore is less commonly omitted.



thought I should come to you as a suppliant (Cic., Att., xvi., 16 c, 10); $d\bar{\imath}xit$ futurum esse ut poscerent, he said they would demand.

- 539. In other constructions than those of indirect discourse, only the present infinitive is common. The perfect is used to denote COMPLETED ACTION.*
- a. With verbs of wishing, obligation, etc., the perfect passive is found sometimes where the present would seem more logical; as:—

Patrēs vestrī Corinthum exstīnctum esse voluērunt, your fathers insisted that Corinth should be destroyed (Cic., Lēg. Mān., 5, 11).

b. In early Latin, and in the poets and later writers, the perfect active is also thus used with various verbs. Thus:—

Tendentēs opācō Pēlion imposuisse Olympō, struggling to pile Pelion upon shady Olympus (Hor., Carm., iii., 4, 52); bacchātur vātēs, māgnum sī pectere possit excussisse deum, the prophetess rushes wildly about to try if she can shake off the divine influence from her soul (Verg., Aen., 6, 78).

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

- 540. There are four classes of substantive clauses, as follows:—
- (1.) Subjunctive clauses introduced by ut, nē, quīn, etc. (developed from purpose or result). (Cf. 484 ff.)
- (2.) Infinitives with subject accusative (indirect discourse). (Cf. 515 ff. and 533 ff.)
 - (3.) Indirect questions. (Cf. 518.)
- (4.) Indicative clauses introduced by quod = "the fact that" (a variety of causal clauses); as:—

 $M\bar{a}gnum\ beneficium\ est\ n\bar{a}t\bar{u}rae$, quod necesse est morī, it is a great natural blessing that we must die.

* Especially with expressions like satis habeo, pudet, contentus sum, melius erit, etc.

Which of these kinds of substantive clauses should be used with any given verb can generally be determined by considering the nature of the thing said, as follows:—

541. (1.) If the thing said in the substantive clause has the nature of a STATEMENT (spoken or thought), an infinitive clause is used; as:—

Non putābant dē tālī viro sūspīcionibus oportēre iūdicārī, such a man ought not to be judged [they thought] by suspicious circumstances.

(2.) If the thing said involves a REASON or EXPLANATORY fact, the substantive clause takes quod; as:—

Mihř quidem videntur hominës hāc rē māximē bēluīs praestāre quod loquī possunt, to me, at least, men seem to have the advantage over the brutes in this respect chiefly, that they can speak (Cic.).

(3.) If the thing said is a question, the substantive clause, as an indirect question, takes the subjunctive; as:—

Quae esset brevissima via quaes ivit, he asked what was the shortest way.

(4.) If the thing said has not the nature of any of these three things, the substantive clause takes the subjunctive with ut, $n\bar{e}$, etc.; as:—

 $F\bar{e}c\bar{i}$ $n\bar{o}n$ $inv\bar{i}tus$ ut prodessem multis $rog\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ $tu\bar{o}$, I have been not unwilling to contribute to the advantage of many people at your request (Cic., Am., 1, 4); ad $App\bar{i}$ $Claud\bar{i}$ $senect\bar{u}tem$ $acc\bar{e}d\bar{e}bat$ etiam ut caecus esset, to the old age of Appius Claudius even blindness was added (Cic., Sen., 6, 16).

NOTE. Verbs which in their original use take some particular form of substantive clause often acquire shades of meaning which admit other forms. The possible uses with any given verb are best learned from the dictionary, and by observing the practice of the Latin writers.

thought I should come to you as a suppliant (Cic., Att., xvi., 16 c, 10); $d\bar{\imath}xit$ futurum esse ut poscerent, he said they would demand.

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- a. With verbs of WISHING, OBLIGATION, etc., the perfect passive is found sometimes where the present would seem more logical; as:—

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- (1.) Subjunctive clauses introduced by ut, ne, quin, etc. (developed from purpose or result). (Cf. 484 ff.)
- (2.) Infinitives with subject accusative (indirect discourse). (Cf. 515 ff. and 533 ff.)
 - (3.) Indirect questions. (Cf. 518.)
- (4.) Indicative clauses introduced by quod = "the fact that" (a variety of causal clauses); as:—

 $M\bar{a}gnum\ beneficium\ est\ n\bar{a}t\bar{u}rae$, quod necesse est mori, it is a great natural blessing that we must die.

* Especially with expressions like satis habeo, pudet, contentus sum, melius erit, etc.

Which of these kinds of substantive clauses should be used with any given verb can generally be determined by considering the nature of the thing said, as follows:—

541. (1.) If the thing said in the substantive clause has the nature of a STATEMENT (spoken or thought), an infinitive clause is used; as:—

Non putābant dē tālī virō sūspīcionibus oportēre iūdicārī, such a man ought not to be judged [they thought] by suspicious circumstances.

(2.) If the thing said involves a REASON or EXPLANATORY fact, the substantive clause takes quod; as:—

Mihř quidem videntur hominës hāc rē māximē bēluīs praestāre quod loquī possunt, to me, at least, men seem to have the advantage over the brutes in this respect chiefly, that they can speak (Cic.).

(3.) If the thing said is a question, the substantive clause, as an indirect question, takes the subjunctive; as:—

Quae esset brevissima via quaesīvit, he asked what was the shortest way.

(4.) If the thing said has not the nature of any of these three things, the substantive clause takes the subjunctive with ut, $n\bar{e}$, etc.; as:—

 $F\bar{e}c\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{o}n$ $inv\bar{\imath}tus$ ut prodessem multis $rog\bar{u}t\bar{u}$ $tu\bar{o}$, I have been not unwilling to contribute to the advantage of many people at your request (Cic., Am., 1, 4); ad $App\bar{\imath}$ $Claud\bar{\imath}$ $senect\bar{u}tem$ $acc\bar{e}d\bar{e}bat$ etiam ut caecus esset, to the old age of Appius Claudius even blindness was added (Cic., Sen., 6, 16).

NOTE. Verbs which in their original use take some particular form of substantive clause often acquire shades of meaning which admit other forms. The possible uses with any given verb are best learned from the dictionary, and by observing the practice of the Latin writers.

PARTICIPLES.

In the use of the Latin participles the following points should be noted:—

542. Participles are followed by the same cases and constructions as their verbs. Thus:—

Quīdam, poēta nōminātus, some one, called a poet.

Catulorum oblīta leaena, a lioness forgetful of her whelps (Verg., G., 3, 245).

Faventës rëbus $Karth\bar{a}gini\bar{e}nsium$, favoring the interests of the Carthaginians.

Cāsūs abies vīsūra marīnos, a fir tree [which is] to see the chances of the deep (Verg., G., 2, 68).

 $H\bar{o}rum$ operā saepe anteā ūsus, having used their services often before.

543. The PRESENT participle denotes something going on at the same time as the action of the verb with which it is connected. Thus:—

Turnum fugientem haec terra vidēbit, this land shall see Turnus fleeing (Verg.).

- a. The action denoted by a Latin present participle must belong to exactly the same time as the main action. Only certain participles denoting motion—veniëns, adveniëns, etc.—are used with that kind of loose reference to present time which the English participle often has. Thus we say, "hearing this sound, I ran quickly," where the Roman could not use a present participle, but would take some other form of expression; as, quō sonitū audītō currēbam celeriter, or cum hunc sonitum audīvissem, etc.
- b. The present participle depending upon a verb of saying or perceiving is almost equivalent to an infinitive, but is a more lively form of expression. See *fugientem* in the example above.
- Cf. Laelium et Scīpionem facimus admīrantīs, I represent Laelius and Scipio expressing their wonder (Cic., Sen., 1, 8).

544. The PERFECT participle denotes something already finished at the time indicated by the verb with which it is connected. Thus:—

 $Qu\bar{\imath}$, mīssus ab $Arg\bar{\imath}s$, . . . $\bar{I}tal\bar{a}$ $c\bar{o}ns\bar{e}derat$ urbe, who, sent from Argos, . . . had settled in the Italian city (Verg., Ae., 10, 779).

- a. The perfect participle of many deponent verbs has almost the force of a present participle. So, commonly, arbitrātus, ratus, solitus, ūsus, veritus. Also ausus, commorātus, fīsus, secūtus, and others.
- b. The perfect participle of deponent verbs is sometimes used in a passive sense; as, experta virtūs, valor that has been tried.

NOTE. Except in the case of deponent verbs, an active perfect participle has to be supplied in Latin by changing the construction to the passive (Ablative Absolute), or by a temporal or causal clause (especially a clause introduced by cum, postquam, or dum).

545. The FUTURE participle denotes something which is to take place after the time indicated by the verb with which it is connected. Thus:—

Māgna pars hominum est, quae nāvigātūra dē tempestāte nōn cōgitat, there is a large part of mankind who when on the point of taking a voyage do not think about the state of the weather.

a. The future participle thus agreeing with a noun or pronoun is rare in good prose. In the poets and later writers, (including Livy) it frequently denotes likelihood, intention, or purpose. Thus:—

An $s\bar{e}s\bar{e}$ medios moriturus in hostes inferat, or shall he plunge into the midst of the foe, to meet his death (Verg., Ae., 9, 398).

546. The present and perfect participles are often used as attributive adjectives (or as nouns), and can even be compared, like other adjectives. Thus:—

Urbs florentissima, a most flourishing city.

Vir spectatus, a man proved worthy.

Male parta male dīlābuntur, ill gotten gains slip away in the same bad fashion (Cic., Phil., ii., 27, 65).

Quō paratior ad ūsum forensem promptiorque esse possim, that I may be better prepared and more ready for forensic practice (Cic., Caec., 13, 41).

547. A present or a perfect participle is also often used in the sense of a predicate, where in English a clause (or phrase) would be found denoting an accompanying circumstance, a cause or hindrance, etc. Thus:—

Sanguīs in tōtum corpus distribuitur per vēnās in omnēs partēs corporis pertinentēs, the blood is distributed to the whole body, through veins which extend into all parts of the body (Cic., N. D., ii., 55, 137); Caesar explōrātīs regiōnibus albente caelō omnēs cōpiās castrīs ēdūxit, Caesar, having reconnoitred the country, led all his forces forth from camp as day was breaking (Caes., B. C., 1, 68).

- a. This is the regular use of the participle in the ablative absolute construction (cf. 422), as in the last example.
- b. Sometimes a participle is made to agree with a noun, when the participle itself contains the main idea. In English a noun (especially one in "ing") is used instead of the participle, and its relation to the other noun is expressed by "of." Thus:—

Hae litterae recitatae māgnum lūctum fēcērunt, the reading of this letter caused great grief (Līv.); ab conditā urbe ad līberātam, from the founding of the city to the establishment of the republic [literally, to its freeing] (Līv.).

Cf. also the use of the gerundive (550, especially d).

c. Beside its regular use in forming the compound tenses of the verb (see 211), the perfect participle is sometimes used with habeō almost in the sense of the English compound tenses. In Latin, however, the two parts of the expression retain their own force more distinctly than in English, and the use is chiefly confined to words of knowing and the like. Thus:—

Clōdī animum perspectum habeō, I have thoroughly investigated Clodius's state of mind [literally, I hold it in an

investigated condition]. Cf. (Plaut., Cap., 345) transactum reddet omne, he will do the thing up brown [literally, he will return it finished], and (in Terence and Cicero) mīssum faciō, I let go, dismiss.

GERUND and GERUNDIVE.

- 548. (1.) The GERUND is a verbal noun used in the oblique cases with the same force which the infinitive has as subject (or object) of a verb, and governing the cases like any other part of the verb. Its meaning is active.
- (2.) The GERUNDIVE is a verbal adjective denoting necessity, propriety, or duty, or, in the oblique cases, taking the place of the gerund under certain circumstances. In the first of these uses it is passive; in the second, though seemingly passive, it is really, like the gerund, active.
- 549. Examples of the use of the gerund are as follows:—

Metus pārendī sibi, fear of obeying him; parcendō victīs, by sparing the conquered; efferor studiō patrēs vestrōs... videndī, I am carried away with a desire to see your fathers (Cic., Sen., 23, 83).

550. Instead of the gerund with an object, in the case of transitive verbs the gerundive construction is commonly used; i. e., the object is put in the case which the gerund would have had, and the gerundive is made to agree with it. Thus:—

Consilium scribendae epistulae, the purpose of writing a letter (Gerund, scribendi epistulam); ad defendendam Romam ab oppugnanda Capua duces Romanos abstrahit, he draws off the Roman generals from the siege of Capua to the defense of Rome (Gerund, ad defendendum Romam ab oppugnando Capuam); reparandarum classium causa, for the sake of repairing the fleets (Gerund, reparandi classes).

a. The gerundive, rather than the gerund, is regularly used with the verbs ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, which in early times took the accusative where later usage employed the ablative. Thus:—

Quod illa aetās magis ad haec ūtenda (rather than ad hīs ūtendum) idōneast, because that time of life is better suited to these employments (Ter., Heaut., 133); iūstitiae fruendae (rather than iūstitiā fruendī) causā, for the sake of enjoying justice; hostēs in spem potiundōrum castrōrum (rather than potiundī castrīs) vēnerant, the enemy had come into the hope of getting possession of the camp.

b. If ambiguity would arise (through confusion of the gender) from the use of the gerundive, the gerund is used. So especially when the object is a neuter pronoun or adjective. Thus:—

Aliquid faciendī ratiō, a principle of doing something (Cic.); artem et vēra et falsa dījūdicandī, the art of distinguishing the true and the false (Cic.).

c. The genitive of the gerund sometimes occurs with a possessive pronoun agreeing with it, rarely also with a noun depending upon it, where it looks at first sight like a gerundive irregularly used. Thus:—

Quoniam tuī videndī est cōpia, since there is an opportunity of seeing you [said of a woman] (Plaut.); in castra vēnērunt suī pūrgandī causā, they came to the camp for the sake of excusing themselves [lit., of their own excusing] (Līv.); nōn vereor nē quis mē haec vestrī adhortandī causā māgnificē loquī exīstimet, I am not afraid any one will think I exaggerate this to encourage you (Līv., xxi., 41, 1); exemplōrum ēligendī potestās, the power of [the] choosing [of] examples (Cic.).

d. The gerund and gerundive represent something as not yet completed or accomplished. If something completed is spoken of, the perfect participle must be used. Thus:—

Sūspīciō rēgnī adpetendī, a suspicion of aiming at royal power; sūspīciō rēgnī adpetītī, a suspicion of having aimed at royal power; ante conditam condendamve urbem, be-

fore the founding of the city was accomplished or planned (Līv., i., praef., 6).

CASES OF THE GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

551. The GENITIVE of the gerund or gerundive with $caus\bar{a}$ (or $gr\bar{a}ti\bar{a}$)* and the ACCUSATIVE of the gerund or gerundive with ad are often used to denote purpose. Thus:—

Postrēmō [Catilīna] dissimulandī causā vel suī expūrgandī... in senātum vēnit, finally, for the purpose of hiding [the real state of the case] or of clearing himself, Catiline came into the senate (Sall., Cat., 31, 4); ad castra facienda, for the purpose of making a camp (Cic.).

a. The dative of the gerundive is used to express a purpose, after names of offices, and words denoting election or appointment. Thus:—

Decemvirī lēgibus scrībendīs, a commission of ten for writing out the laws; triumvirōs agrō dandō creat, he appoints a committee of three for assigning land (Līv., 3, 1, 6).

Note. Otherwise the dative of both gerund and gerundive is rare.

- b. The ACCUSATIVE of the gerund and gerundive (except in the use treated under 552, 2) is found only with the prepositions ad and (occasionally) ante, in or ob, or (in verse) inter. See above examples.
- c. The ABLATIVE of the gerund and gerundive is used with prepositions, and to denote cause, manner, or instrument. Thus:—

 $D\bar{e}$ $c\bar{o}nsul\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ $petend\bar{o}$, in regard to being a candidate for the consulship; currend \bar{o} et luctand \bar{o} exercise by running and wrestling.

OTHER USES OF THE GERUNDIVE.

- 552. Besides forming the periphrastic conjugation (see 229, 2), to denote what must be done, or ought to be
- * These nouns are almost always placed after the genitive because the genitive is almost always the more emphatic of the two words (see 585).



done, and serving as a substitute for the gerund (see 550 and 551), the gerundive is chiefly used as follows:—

(1.) As an attributive adjective, meaning "worthy of," and the like. Thus:—

[Prūdentia] quae est rērum expetendārum fugiendārum que scientia, prudence, which is the knowledge of things to be desired and things to be shunned (Cic., Off., i., 43, 153); admīranda $fr\bar{u}g\bar{u}lit\bar{u}s$, an admirable frugality (Cic., $D\bar{e}iot$., 9, 26).

(2.) As a predicate adjective denoting PURPOSE, after words meaning to give, deliver, agree for, undertake, receive, and some others. Thus:—

Tēstāmentum $tib\check{t}$ $tr\bar{a}det$ legendum, he will hand his will to you to read (Hor., Sat., ii., 5, 51); attribuit nos trucīdandos $Ceth\bar{e}g\bar{o}$, he assigned us to Cethegus to be butchered (Cic., Cat., iv., 6, 13).

(3.) The neuter is sometimes used impersonally (especially in early Latin and the poets) governing a case. Thus:—

Nunc pācem ōrandum, nunc... arma repōnendum et bellum exitiāle cavendum, now we must beg for peace, now lay aside arms and avoid murderous war (Sīl.); cum suō cuique iūdiciō sit ūtendum, since each must use his own judgment; quam nobīs quoque ingrediundum sit, [a road] which we too must travel (Cic., Sen., 2, 6).

SUPINE.

NOTE. The supine is found in a comparatively small number of verbs. For a list of them see Draeger's *Historische Syntax*, vol. ii., p. 859 ff.

- 553. The SUPINE is a verbal noun with active meaning, used only in the accusative and ablative, as follows:—
 - 554. The ACCUSATIVE of the supine is used: —
- (1.) To form the future passive infinitive with $\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}$ (see 211, a). Thus:—

Ait Karthāginem captum īrī, he says Carthage is going to be (or will be) taken.

NOTE. Here iri is used impersonally, and the apparent subject of the infinitive is really the object of the supine.

(2.) With verbs of motion (expressed or implied), to denote PURPOSE. Thus:—

 $L\bar{e}g\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$ vēnērunt questum iniūriās et rēs repetītum, ambassadors came to complain of wrongs and demand restitution (Līv.); cubitum $disc\bar{e}ssimus$, we parted for the night [lit., to lie down] (Cic., $R\bar{e}$ $P\bar{u}b$., vi., 10, 10); puerum mīsit rogātum, quid vellet, he sent a boy to ask what he wished.

- a. So metaphorically, dare nūptum, collocāre nūptum, give in marriage, sēssum recipere, offer a seat, perditum īre, go to ruin.
- b. The accusative of the supine is especially rare with an object, as in the first example above.
- 555. The ABLATIVE of the supine is used in classical Latin only as an ablative of specification (see 412), chiefly with the adjectives facilis, difficilis; iūcundus, iniūcundus; honestus, turpis; crēdibilis, incrēdibilis; mīrābilis, ūtilis, optimus; and with the nouns fās, nefās, opus. Thus:—
- $R\bar{e}m$... factū facilem, a thing easy to do (Ter., Heaut., 704); $m\bar{r}r\bar{a}bile\ dict\bar{u}$, wonderful to tell (Verg., G., 2, 30); incredibile memor $\bar{a}t\bar{u}$, incredible to relate (Sall., Cat., 6, 2); $h\bar{o}c$ fās est dictū, this is a right thing to say (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, v., 13, 38); dictū opus est, it must be said (Ter., Heaut., 941).
- a. The ablative of the following supines occurs in classical Latin: $aud\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}$, $c\bar{o}gnit\bar{u}$, $dict\bar{u}$, $fact\bar{u}$, $intell\bar{e}ct\bar{u}$, $invent\bar{u}$, $memor\bar{u}t\bar{u}$, $s\bar{c}it\bar{u}$, $v\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}$.
- b. In Livy and later writers $d\bar{\imath}gnus$ and $ind\bar{\imath}gnus$ occur with the ablative of a supine; as, $ind\bar{\imath}gnum$ $rel\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}u$.
- c. The gerundive with ad is more common with facilis, difficilis, and $i\bar{u}cundus$, and the infinitive is also used; as, facile est invenire, it is easy to find. $D\bar{\iota}gnus$ takes $qu\bar{\iota}$ with the

subjunctive in classical Latin, or the ablative of a noun. (Cf. also 536, a.)

The Different Constructions of Purpose.

- 556. The following eight ways of expressing PURPOSE are possible in Latin:—
 - (1.) Subjunctive with ut or nē.
 - (2.) " a relative.
 - (3.) Gerund (or gerundive) with ad.
 - (4.) " $caus\bar{a} (gr\bar{a}ti\bar{a})$.
 - (5.) Accusative of the gerundive.
 - (6.) Future participle.
 - (7.) Supine.
 - (8.) Infinitive.
- a. Of these the subjunctive with ut or quī is the common and regular construction (for the distinction between ut and quī see 482, 2, note). The gerund and gerundive constructions (with ad or causū) are used only in short expressions, and rarely if the verb of purpose has any further modifier than an object and an adverb of manner. The gerundive without ad or causū is used only with the verbs given under 552, 2. The future participle belongs mostly to late Latin, and is said not to occur in Cicero at all. The supine is used only as in 554. The infinitive is poetical and not common. (Cf. 536.)

ADVERBS.

- 557. Latin ADVERBS are used, in general, like English adverbs, to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.
- a. The adverbs in $-\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ and $-\mathbf{ter}$ (from adjectives of the second and third declensions respectively) are usually adverbs of MANNER; as, $c\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, dearly; $praecl\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, nobly; $aud\bar{a}cter$, boldly; leviter, lightly.
- b. The adverbs in -um and -im (originally accusatives), are usually adverbs of QUANTITY or AMOUNT; as, multum, much; paulum, a little; partim, partly. They therefore modify verbs chiefly.

- c. The adverbs in -ō (originally ablatives) are usually adverbs of DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE; as, multō, by far, much; paulō, (by) a little. They therefore modify adjectives and adverbs chiefly.
- NOTE 1. The last two classes tend to pass into each other, so that the difference is sometimes so subtle as to seem wholly arbitrary. Cf. $pr\bar{\imath}mum$, first (in a series), to begin with, with $pr\bar{\imath}m\bar{o}$, first (in time), in the first place.
- NOTE 2. Apparent exceptions to the above are the adverbs of emphatic assertion, $s\bar{a}n\bar{e}$, $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, $profect\bar{o}$, $cert\bar{o}$, and others, though generally they are adverbs of manner which have lost their original meanings.
- d. Of the words for "so," ita and (more emphatic) sīc are adverbs of manner, and modify verbs; tam is an adverb of degree, and modifies chiefly adjectives and adverbs.
- e. Ut ... ita, "as ... so," are often equivalent to "although ... yet" (one member of the comparison being by implication a negative). Thus:—

Ut $qui\bar{e}s$ $cert\bar{a}minum$ erat, ita ab $appar\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ operum ... nihil $c\bar{e}ss\bar{a}tum$, though there was a cessation of conflict, yet there was no interruption in the construction of fortifications (Līv., xxi., 8, 1).

f. With a word or phrase explaining something said, ut is sometimes ambiguous. It may be "seeing that," giving a reason, or "considering that," indicating a limitation, and the context has to decide. Thus:—

Epicharmī, acūtī nec īnsulsī hominis, ut Siculī, of Epicharmus, a clever and witty man as [you would expect of] a Sicilian (Cic., Tūsc., i., 8, 15); Spurius Maelius . . . ut illīs temporibus praedīves, Spurius Maelius, a very rich man for those times (Līv., iv., 13, 1).

- g. Of the words for "not," $n\bar{o}n$ indicates simple negation, $n\bar{e}$ negatives commands or purposes, and haud is used with single words and phrases, especially adjectives and adverbs.
- h. In Latin an adjective is sometimes used, characterizing the person who does a thing (especially his state of mind), where English prefers an adverb of manner or order. Thus:—

Itaque fēcī non invītus, ut prodessem multīs tuo rogātū, I

have not unwillingly labored at your request for the benefit of many (Cic., Am., i., 4); quid prūdēns et sciēns ad interitum ruis, why do you rush to destruction knowingly and with your eyes open? hostēs rārī sē ōstendere coepērunt, the enemy began to show themselves here and there; priōrī $Rem\bar{o}$ augurium $v\bar{e}nisse$ fertur, an omen is said to have come to Remus first.

i. With words like prīmus there is a difference of meaning according as (1) the adjective agreeing with the subject, or (2) the adjective agreeing with the object, or (3) the adverb is used. Thus:—

Ille prīmus aedem hīc posuit, he was the first to build a temple here.

Ille prīmam aedem hīc posuit, he built the first temple here [some one else may have built another].

Ille prīmum aedem hīc posuit, he first built a temple here [and then did something else].

PREPOSITIONS.

558. The PREPOSITIONS originally expressed relations of place, and then passed into other relations.

A synopsis of their use may be given as follows: -

Prepositions with Accusative.

- 559. (1.) Ad, towards, to (opposite of ab). Place: ad $urbem\ \bar{\imath}re$, to go to, or towards, the city; ad $urbem\ esse$, to be near the city. Time: ad $senect\bar{\imath}tem$, to, or till, old age; ad vesperum, towards evening. Number: ad $m\bar{\imath}lia\ tria$,* towards, or about, three thousand. Metaphorical relations: ad $v\bar{\imath}tam$ $be\bar{\imath}tam$, towards, or with regard to, a happy life; ad tantum bellum, towards, or for, so great a war; ad $m\bar{\imath}$ $scr\bar{\imath}bere$, to write to me; ad $oppidum\ capiendum$, towards, or for the purpose of, taking the town; ad $volunt\bar{\imath}tem\ meam$, according to my wish; ad $urbem\ vert modum\ serm\bar{\imath}$ $urbem\ vert meam$, according to my wish; ad $urbem\ vert modum\ serm\bar{\imath}$ $urbem\ vert meam$, according to my wish started in this fashion.
- * In the historians and later writers ad is also used as an adverb with numbers. Thus: ad duōrum mīlium numerus, a number of about two thousand (Caes.).



- (2.) Adversus (less commonly adversum) [p. p. of advertere; i. e., ad and vertere, to turn], turned towards, towards, against, facing. Place: adversus aegrum, opposite the sick man; adversum speculum, before the mirror. Metaphorically: quōnam modō mē gererem adversus Caesarem, how should I have conducted myself towards Caesar? adversum lēgem, against the law; impetus adversus montem, an attack against, or upon, the mountain.
- (3.) Ante, before (opposite of post). Place (used only with objects at rest): ante $aed\bar{\imath}s$, before the house; ante $s\bar{e}$, before himself; ante $ocul\bar{\imath}s$, before one's eyes, or face. Time: ante hiemem,* before winter; ante $l\bar{\imath}ucem$, before daylight. Metaphorically: ante $ali\bar{\imath}s$ pulcherrima omn $\bar{\imath}s$, fair before, or beyond, all others; ante omn $\bar{\imath}a$, before, or above, all things.
- (4.) Apud, near (primarily of persons and used only where no motion is implied). Apud Caesarem, before Caesar, or at Caesar's house; hōc est apud Graecōs prope glōriōsius quam Rōmae triumphāsse, this is almost more glorious among the Greeks than a triumph is at Rome; bellātum apud Actium, a battle was fought at Actium; māgnā apud plēbem grātiā, of great influence with the commons.
- (5.) Circum (later also circā), around, about. PLACE: terra circum axem sē convertit, the earth revolves around its axis (Cic., Acad., ii., 39, 123); capillus circum caput rēiectus, hair thrown back about the head; circum haec loca, about these places; circā forum, about the forum (Quīnt.); paucae quae circum illam essent, the few [attendants] about her (Ter.).
- (6.) Circiter, † about (very rare of place and mostly used of time). Circiter merūliem, about noon.
- (7.) $Citr\bar{a}$ (more rarely cis), on this side of (opposite of $\bar{u}ltr\bar{a}$). Place: citrā $Rh\bar{e}num$, on this side of the Rhine; cis Taurum, this side the Taurus mountain. Time (post-classical, cis also in Plautus): cis $pauc\bar{o}s$ $di\bar{e}s$, within a few days. Metaphorically (post classical): citrā $virt\bar{u}tem$, without virtue.
- * "Two days before" and similar expressions may be rendered into Latin in either of the following ways: ante (prep.) duōs diēs; duōbus ante (adv.) diēbus.
 - † More common as an adverb.



- (8.) Contrā, opposite, against. Place: contrā Ītaliam, opposite Italy; contrā Massiliam, off Marseilles; contrā medium porticum, facing the middle of the portico; contrā hostem fōssam facere, to make a ditch facing the enemy; dūcere contrā hostēs, to lead against the enemy. Metaphorically: contrā sententiam, contrary to one's opinion; coniūrātionem facere contrā Caesarem, to make a conspiracy against Caesar.
- (9.) $Erg\bar{a}$, towards (chiefly of feelings towards persons, and generally friendly). Ergā illum benīgnus, kindly disposed towards him; $d\bar{v}v\bar{v}na$ bonitās ergā hominēs, the divine goodness towards mankind; odium ergā rēgem, hatred towards the king; ergā meam salūtem, in regard to my safety (Cic.)
- (10.) Extrā, outside of, beyond (opposite of intrā). Place: extrā Peloponnēsum, outside of the Peloponnesus; extrā prōvinciam, beyond the province. Metaphorically: extrā numerum, beyond the number; extrā modum, beyond bounds; extrā ūnum tē, except you alone.
- (11.) $\bar{I}nfr\bar{a}$, on the under side, below (opposite of $supr\bar{a}$). $\bar{I}nfr\bar{a}$ oppidum, below the town; $\bar{I}nfr\bar{a}$ $\bar{i}nfim\bar{o}s$ homines, beneath the lowest of mankind (Ter.).
- (12.) Inter, between, among. Inter Padum et Alpēs, between the Po and the Alps; inter $pr\bar{\imath}m\bar{o}s$, among the first; inter $h\bar{a}s$ turb $\bar{a}s$, in the midst of these disturbances; inter noctem, during the night.
- (13.) Intrā, inside of, within (opposite of extrā). Intrā parietēs meōs, within my walls; intrā annōs quīnque, within five years; intrā centum, less than a hundred.
- (14.) $I\bar{u}xt\bar{u}$, close to, near. $I\bar{u}xt\bar{a}$ eum castra posuit, he pitched his camp close to him; $i\bar{u}xt\bar{a}$ $de\bar{o}s$, next to the gods; $i\bar{u}xt\bar{a}$ $s\bar{e}diti\bar{o}nem$, next thing to an insurrection.
- (15.) Ob (before, as an obstruction, but mostly used in the metaphorical sense "on account of"). Mors ob oculos versāta est, death danced before his eyes; ob stultitiam, on account of, or through, folly; ob eam rem, on that account.
- (16.) Penes, in the possession, power, or hands of. Penes $e\bar{o}s$ victoria est, the victory is with them; penes $r\bar{e}gem$, in the king's power.

- (17.) Per, through. PLACE: per forum $\bar{\imath}re$, to go through the forum; per mare, over the sea. Time: per hiemem, through the winter; per $ind\bar{\imath}uti\bar{\imath}s$, during the truce. Metaphorically: per $v\bar{\imath}s$, through your means; per $m\bar{e}$ licet, you may, for all I care; per $l\bar{\imath}udum$, in sport. In Asseverations: per $de\bar{\imath}s$, by the gods; per tuam fidem, by your honor.
- (18.) $P\bar{o}ne$, behind (rare in classical Latin). Pone $m\bar{e}$, behind me; pone castra, behind the camp.
- (19.) Post, behind, after (opposite of ante). Place: post $m\bar{e}$, behind me; post montem, behind the mountain. Time: post paucōs diēs,* after a few days; post urbem conditam, after the founding of the city.
- (20.) Praeter, along by, beyond (most common in the metaphorical meanings "beyond," "except," "contrary to"). Praeter castra dūcere, to march by, or beyond, the camp; praeter aetātem stultus, foolish beyond his years; praeter spem, contrary to expectation; praeter imperātās pecūnias, besides the money ordered; nūllī vestītūs praeter pellēs, no clothing except skins.
- (21.) Prope, near. Prope oppidum, near the town; prope $m\bar{e}$, near me.
- (22.) Propter, near (but chiefly in the metaphorical sense "on account of"). Propter hanc statuam, near this statue; propter $fr\bar{\imath}gora$, on account of the cold; propter $m\bar{e}$, on my account.
- (23.) Secundum, following, after (participial form from sequor). Place: $\bar{t}te$ secundum $m\bar{e}$, come after, or behind, me; secundum mare superum, along the upper [Adriatic] sea. Time: secundum $l\bar{u}d\bar{o}s$, after the sports; secundum hunc diem, after this day. Metaphorically: secundum $de\bar{o}s$, next to the gods; secundum $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}ram$, according to nature.
- (24.) $Supr\bar{a}$, on the upper side of, above (opposite of $\bar{i}nfr\bar{a}$). Place: suprā terram, above the earth. Number: suprā $septem\ m\bar{i}lia$, more than seven thousand. Metaphorically: suprā $l\bar{e}g\bar{e}s$, above the laws; suprā $h\bar{u}m\bar{a}nam\ fidem$, beyond what one could believe of man.
 - * Or paucis post diebus. (Cf. foot-note on p. 353.)



- (25.) $Tr\bar{a}ns$, across, beyond. Trāns mare $\bar{i}re$, to go across the sea; trāns $Rh\bar{e}num$ esse, to be across the Rhine.
- (26.) $\bar{U}ltr\bar{a}$, on the farther side of, beyond (opposite of $citr\bar{a}$). $\bar{U}ltr\bar{a}$ Padum, on the other side of the Po; $\bar{u}ltr\bar{a}$ puer $\bar{u}\bar{c}s$ ann $\bar{o}s$, beyond the years of boyhood; $\bar{u}ltr\bar{a}$ modum, beyond the limit.

Prepositions with Accusative or Ablative.

- 560 (1.) In, into (with accusative), in (with ablative) (opposite of ex).
- a. With accusative (motion implied). Place: in urbem, into the city; in Hispāniam, into Spain; in caelum, towards heaven. Time: in multam noctem, till late at night. METAPHORICALLY: in perpetuum, for ever; in aliquem carmen scrībere, to write a poem on somebody; in līberōs indulgentia, indulgence towards one's children; pietās in deōs, piety towards the gods; impetus in castra, an attack upon the camp; in bellum ardentēs, eager for war.
- b. With ablative (motion not implied). PLACE: in urbe, in the city; in $terr\bar{u}$, on the earth; in $c\bar{o}nti\bar{o}ne$, in the assembly; in $h\bar{\iota}s$, among these. Time: in $adul\bar{e}scenti\bar{a}$, in youth; in $e\bar{o}$ $ann\bar{o}$, in that year. Metaphorically: in $m\bar{e}$, in my case; in $met\bar{u}$, in fear; in $h\bar{o}c$ genere, in this class.
 - (2.) Sub, under (opposite of super).
- a. With accusative (motion implied). PLACE: sub iugum mīttere, to send under the yoke; sub montem accēdēre, to go to the foot of the mountain. TIME: sub vesperum, just towards evening; sub lūcem, just before dawn; sub haec dicta, just after this was said. Metaphorically: sub potestātem ēius cadere, to fall under his power.
- b. With ablative (motion not implied). Place: sub $terr\bar{a}$, under the earth; sub $vest\bar{\imath}ment\bar{\imath}s$, under one's clothing; sub monte, at the foot of the mountain. Time: sub $ips\bar{a}$ profectione, just at the start; sub $l\bar{u}ce$, by daylight. Metaphorically: sub $arm\bar{\imath}s$, under arms; sub $r\bar{e}gn\bar{o}$ illius, under his sway; sub $h\bar{\imath}s$ condicionibus, on these terms.
 - (3.) Subter, beneath (rare and mostly poetical). Subter

fastīgia tēctī, below the point of the roof; subter mare, under the sea; subter lītore, by [beneath] the shore.

- (4.) Super, above (opposite of sub).
- a. With accusative. Super caput hostium pervenīre, to come out above the heads of the enemy; aquila super carpentum volitāns, an eagle flying over the carriage; super Bosporum, beyond the Bosporus; super epulās, during the feast (post-classical).
- b. With ablative (chiefly in the metaphorical meaning "about," "concerning"). Super $h\bar{a}c$ $r\bar{e}$, on this matter; super $ancill\bar{a}$, in regard to the handmaid; super $Priam\bar{o}$ $rogit\bar{a}ns$, asking about Priam. [Very rare in Cicero, and not found in Caesar in this use.]

Prepositions with Ablative.

- 561. (1.) Ab (abs, \bar{a}), away from, from (opposite of ad). Place: ab urbe ducere, to march from the city; \bar{a} $t\bar{c}$ abīre, to go away from you. Time: ab urbe conditā, from or after, the founding of the city; ab $h\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ $terti\bar{a}$, from the third hour. Metaphorically: ab $d\bar{e}f$ $\bar{e}nsi\bar{o}ne$ $d\bar{e}sistere$, to cease from the defense; prope ab $or\bar{c}gine$, near [i. e., not far from] the origin; ab illō differre, to be different from that; quārtus ab Arcesilā, fourth from [i. e., after] Arcesilas; ā patre $d\bar{c}ductus$ ad Scaevolam, taken by my father to Scaevola; abs $t\bar{e}$ laudārī, to be praised by you.
- (2.) Absque, away from, without, except (ante-classical and post-classical). Absque paucīs syllabīs, except a few syllables (Gell.).

Absque is very rare except in Plautus and Terence, where it is used only in connection with the imperfect subjunctive of sum as an equivalent for a conditional clause. Thus:—

Quam fortunatus cēteris sum rēbus absque ūnā hāc foret, how lucky I am in everything else, were it not for this one thing [if it were apart from this one thing] (Ter., Hec., 601).

(3.) Cōram (first used as preposition by Cicero), before the face of, in presence of. Cōram generō meō, in my son-in-law's presence; cōram populō, before the people (Hor.).

- (4.) Cum, with, in company with (opposite of sine). Cum coniugibus et līberīs, with their wives and children; mēcum, with me; pariter cum ortū sōlis, at sunrise.
- (5.) $D\bar{e}$, from (between ab and ex), down from. Place: $d\bar{e}$ finibus suis exire, to go out from one's boundaries; $d\bar{e}$ digito \bar{a} nulum detrahere, to take a ring from the finger; $d\bar{e}$ caelo, from heaven. Time: $d\bar{e}$ nocte, by night; $d\bar{e}$ tertia vigilia, in the third watch. Metaphorically: poeta $d\bar{e}$ populo, a poet from the people; $d\bar{e}$ suo adventa, about his arrival; $d\bar{e}$ argento, in regard to the money; quid $d\bar{e}$ fratre, how about brother?
- (6.) Ex (\bar{e}) , out of, from (opposite of in). Place: ex oppidō $\bar{v}re$, to go out of the town; \bar{e} port \bar{u} , from the harbor. Time: ex $c\bar{o}nsul\bar{a}t\bar{u}$, from, or after, his consulship; ex $e\bar{o}$ tempore, from that time. Metaphorically: ex $t\bar{e}$ quaerere, to ask of you; ex $h\bar{o}c$ quaest \bar{u} , from this profession; statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze; ex meā sententiā, in accordance with my opinion [wishes]; \bar{e} $r\bar{e}$ pūblicā, in the interest of the state; \bar{e} regiōne, in a straight line.
- (7.) Prae, before, in front of. PLACE: prae $s\bar{e}$ mittere, to send in front of one's self. METAPHORICALLY (more frequent): prae $met\bar{u}$, for fear; prae $m\bar{a}gnit\bar{u}dine$, in comparison with their size; prae $iacul\bar{v}rum$ multitudine, on account of the number of darts.
 - (8.) $Pr\bar{o}$, before, in front of. Place: $pr\bar{o}$ aede Castoris, in front of the temple of Castor; $pr\bar{o}$ castrīs, before the camp; $pr\bar{o}$ contione, before the assembly. Metaphorically: $pr\bar{o}$ patriā, in behalf of the country; $pr\bar{o}$ tē, for, or instead of, you; $pr\bar{o}$ beneficiīs tuīs, in return for your kindnesses; $pr\bar{o}$ dīgnitāte suā, in accordance with his own dignity.
 - (9.) Sine, without (opposite of cum). Sine $t\bar{e}$, without you; sine $dubi\bar{o}$, without doubt; sine $poen\bar{a}$, without punishment.
 - (10.) Tenus, so far as (stands after its case). Aethiopiā tenus, as far as Aethiopia; $capul\bar{o}$ tenus, as far as the hilt. (For tenus with genitive, see 431, f.)

For cases with other parts of speech used like prepositions, see 390, 4, 391, 1 and 3, and 431, q.

Note. Observe the different meanings of the following constructions: -

Romam to Rome.

ad Romam to (the neighborhood of) Rome.

 $in R\bar{o}mam$ into Rome. $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}$ from Rome.

ab Romā from (the neighborhood of) Rome.

 $ex R\bar{o}m\bar{a}$ from (within) Rome.

Also: -

Rōmae at Rome.
ad Rōmam near Rome.

CONJUNCTIONS AND OTHER CONNECTIVE PARTICLES.

The following points in the use of connectives deserve attention.

Words for AND (Copulatives).

- 562. The three words for "and," et, que, atque $(\bar{a}c)$, are used as follows:—
- (1.) Et is the general connective, meaning simply "and;" as:—

Cicerō et Caesar; quālis et quanta sit, of what sort and extent it is; virtūs ipsa contemnitur et ōstentūtiō esse dīcitur, virtue itself is scorned and said to be [mere] display; multī et * praeclārī virī, many famous men.

(2.) Que implies a very close connection, and is attached to the second of the connected words, or, when it connects phrases or clauses, to the first word of the second phrase or clause. Thus:—

Ferro ignique, with fire and sword; $dom\bar{\imath}$ militiaeque, at home and in the field; $sen\bar{a}tus$ populusque $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}nus$; $s\bar{\imath}c$ $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}ra$ $s\bar{o}lit\bar{a}rium$ nihil amat semperque ad aliquod tamquam adminiculum . . . $adn\bar{\imath}titur$, so nature loves nothing solitary, but is always struggling for some support, as it were (Cic., Am., 23, 88).

- a. With the prepositions a, ab, ad, apud, ob, sub, que is
- * A connective is thus regularly used between two adjectives agreeing with the same noun in Latin, where in English no connective is preferred.

attached to the object rather than to the preposition; as, \bar{a} meque, and by me; ob eamque rem, and on that account.

(3.) Atque ($\bar{a}c$, never used before vowels or h) is sometimes used as a simple connective of two words. Thus:—

Bellō āc pāce, in war and peace; in omnī caelō atque terrā, in all heaven and on earth; honesta atque inhonesta, things right and wrong; minuit āc mollit, lessens and softens.

But atque ($\bar{a}c$) is more commonly used to give greater prominence to the last one of the connected ideas (= "and in fact," "and particularly"). Thus:—

Rēs tanta atque tam atrōx, a thing so great and in fact so monstrous; vitium levium hominum atque fallūcium, the vice of frivolous and in fact treacherous men; ad opēs tuendās āc tenendās, for the guarding and even maintaining his power.

- a. Atque $(\bar{a}c)$ is less common than et or que, to connect clauses.
- b. Atque $(\bar{a}c)$ is used after words implying a comparison, in the sense of "than" or "as." Thus:—

Virtūs eadem in homine atque deō est, virtue is the same in man as in God; vidēs omnia ferē contrā, āc dicta sunt, ēvēnisse, you see almost everything has come out different from what was said; aliter dē aliūs āc dē nōbūs iūdicāmus, we judge of others otherwise than of ourselves. Cf. the similar use of "nor" in vulgar English; as, "he's taller nor I be."

For et and que after neque (nec), see 565, d. "atqui, see 569, 1.

- 563. (1.) For "both . . . and," et . . . et is the regular classical expression.
- a. Que . . . que is chiefly confined to the poets and later writers, though also used sometimes in prose when the first word is a pronoun; as, seque remque $p\bar{u}blicam$ $c\bar{u}r\bar{u}re$, to care for himself and the state. Et . . . que, and que . . . et, are rarely found.

- b. $Qu\bar{a} \dots qu\bar{a}$, and $simul \dots simul$ are also found. So, too, $mod\delta$. . . $mod\delta$, $tum \dots tum$, "now this . . . now that," tend to pass into the weaker meaning "both . . . and."
- (2.) Cum . . . tum, "both . . . and," "not only . . . but also," and non modo (solum, or sometimes tantum) . . . sed (vērum) etiam * throw more stress upon the second of the ideas connected. Thus:—

Quā quid potest esse cum frūctū laetius tum adspectū pulchrius? cūius quidem non ūtilitās mē solum, ut ante dīxī, sed etiam cultūra et nātūra ipsa dēlectat, than which [the vine] what can be, not only more luxuriant in fruit, but even more beautiful to look at? I take delight not only in its usefulness, but also in the very cultivation of it and study of its nature (Cic., Sen., 15, 53).

a. So also when the first expression or both expressions are negative: $n\bar{o}n \mod \bar{o}$ $n\bar{o}n$, etc., . . . sed etiam, or sed $n\bar{e}$. . . quidem. Thus:—

Omnia dēspicere non modo non laudī vērum etiam vitio dandum puto, I think that to look down upon everything (i. e., from a philosophic height) must be regarded not only as no glory, but even as a defect; ego non modo tibi non īrāscor sed no reprehendo quidem factum tuum, I not only am not angry with you, but do not even find fault with what you have done.

b. When the second member contains $n\bar{e}$. . . quidem, if the predicate of both members is the same, the second $n\bar{o}n$ is regularly omitted in the first member. Thus:—

Quae non modo $am\bar{\imath}c\bar{o}$ sed no $l\bar{\imath}ber\bar{o}$ quidem $d\bar{\imath}gna$ est, which [servile flattery] is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a freeman (Cic., Am., 24, 89).

564. When more than two things are connected, either the conjunction is omitted altogether (asyndeton), or it is used between each two words. Thus:—

Cicerō, Caesar, Sallustius, or Cicerō et Caesar et Sallustius.

^{*} Sometimes also sed alone.



- a. Sometimes que is attached to the last word of a series otherwise unconnected, although in Cicero in such cases (except where the last word is aliī, cēterī, or the like) there is generally, if not always, a closer connection between the last two members of the series which makes them a sort of unit in relation to the rest; as, voltūs, vōcēs, mōtūs statūsque mūtantur (Off., i., 29, 102), where the motions and attitude form one element of the series, the other two being the expression of the face and the voice.
- b. In Livy and later writers the last two words are sometimes connected even by et when the others are unconnected, as is done in English.
- c. Asyndeton is especially common with pairs of words which together form a sort of whole; as, equites pedites permīxtī, horse and foot all mixed up together; ventīs rēmīs, with wind and oar; and in fixed expressions like L. Pīsōne A. Gabīniō consulibus; Iūppiter optimus māximus.

Words for OR (Disjunctives).

- 565. (1.) Of the words for "or," aut and vel are used in assertions and negations, an in questions, $s\bar{\imath}ve$ in conditional statements.
- (2.) Aut indicates that in the nature of the case only one of the alternatives is possible; vel (from $vol\bar{o}$) indicates that the choice of the alternative rests with the person concerned. Thus:—

Haec aut $v\bar{e}ra$ sunt aut falsa, this is either true or false; $h\bar{i}c$ vincendum aut moriendum est, under these circumstances we must conquer or die.

Eiusmodī coniūnctionem tēctorum oppidum vel urbem appellāvērunt, such a combination of buildings they called a town or [if you please] a city (Cic., $R\bar{e}$ $P\bar{u}b$., i., 26, 41); trānsfer idem ad modestiam vel temperantiam, apply the same thing to self-control or self-restraint (Cic., $F\bar{\imath}n$., ii., 19, 60).

Sed utrum tū amīcīs hodiē an inimīcīs tuīs datūru's cēnam? but are you going to give a dinner to your friends or to your enemies on this occasion? (Plaut., Ps., iii., 2, 88).

Cumque hominī sīve nātūra sīve quis deus nihil mente praestābilius dedisset, and that when either nature* or some god had given man nothing more excellent than his mind (Cic., Sen., 12, 40).

a. Aut or vel can of course be used in a question when the alternative does not apply to the whole question, but only to a particular pair of words or phrases in it; as:—

 $N\bar{o}nne\ haec\ necess\bar{a}ri\bar{o}$ aut $v\bar{e}ra$ aut $falsa\ sunt$? are not these things necessarily either true or false?

b. Ve is milder than vel, and is attached like que to the second word or phrase; as:—

Sine $\bar{u}ll\bar{u}s$ praemis fructibusve, without any rewards or emoluments; $pl\bar{u}s$ minusve, more or less; bis terve, two or three times.

c. The use of vel, where there is no alternative, in the sense of "if you will," "even," is of course adverbial, not conjunctival. Thus:—

Nūllaene igitur rēs sunt senīlēs, qūae vel īnfīrmīs corporibus animō tamen administrentur, are there then no occupations befitting old men, which, even though their bodies be feeble, they can yet carry on with their minds? (Cic., Sen., 6, 15).

Vel is especially common in this use with superlatives.

d. After neque (nec) in Latin an affirmative clause or phrase is added with et or que, even when in English "not . . . but" is preferred. Thus:—

Sed nec illa exstincta sunt alunturque potius et augentur, but that [remembrance] is not destroyed, but rather nourished and increased (Cic., Am., 27, 104).

For $n\bar{e}ve =$ "and not" in purpose clauses, see 482, 1.

NOTE. As an effective example of the use of different connectives may be given the following sentence from Cicero (Off., i., 25, 86):—

Hinc apud Athēniēnsīs māgnae discordiae, in nostrā rē pūblicā non solum sēditionēs, sed etiam pēstifera bella cīvīlia: quae gravis et fortis cīvis et in rē pūblicā dīgnus prīncipātū fugiet atque oderit trādetque sē totum reī pūblicae neque opēs aut potentiam consectābitur totamque eam sīc tuēbitur ut omnībus consulat.

* I. e., nature, if it was she.



Words for BUT (Adversatives).

566. (1). Sed and (more emphatic) vērum are the regular adversative conjunctions corresponding to the English "but." Thus:—

Vēra dīcō, sed nēquīquam, I speak the truth, but to no purpose.

Non quid nobis ūtile, vērum quid necessārium sit, quaerimus, we are trying to find out, not what is expedient for ourselves, but what is necessary.

(2.) At^* marks a contrast more forcibly than sed or $v\bar{e}rum$, and especially introduces an objection to a line of argument, particularly a supposed objection of an opponent. Thus:—

Māynae dīvitiae dīlābuntur, at ingenī ēgregia facinora immortālia sunt, even great riches slip away, but the deeds of a noble disposition are immortal; at memoria minuitur, but [you will say] the memory weakens.

567. $V\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, "in fact" (standing regularly second in its clause; see 590, a), contrasts something sharply with what has gone before, as certainly true. Thus:—

Haec sunt leviora, illa vero gravia atque magna, these things are rather trifling, but those are really weighty and great.

a. So after a supposed case which is not the real one, nunc $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$ or nunc alone = "as it is," introduces the real case. Thus:—

Ille autem, sī mēhercule hoc, quod agit, numquam anteā cō-gitāsset, tamen latrōcinantem sē interficī māllet quam exsulem vīvere; nunc vērō, etc., now he, if, by the gods, he had never before meditated the move he is now making, would yet prefer to be killed in border warfare than to live in exile; but as it is, etc. (Cic., Cat., ii., 7, 16).

568. Autem is the mildest word for "but," and frequently marks a transition so slight that in English "however," "now," "and," would be employed. Thus:—

^{*} A form ast occurs in poetry.

Croesus hostium vim sēsē perversūrum putāvit, pervertit autem suam, Croesus thought he was going to overthrow the power of his foes, but he overthrew his own; nihil praestābilius mihī vidētur quam posse dīcendō hominēs impellere quō velīs, unde autem velīs dēdūcere, nothing seems to me finer than to be able by oratory to persuade men to what you will and again to draw them away from what you will; M. Octāvius Salōnās oppūgnāre īnstituit; est autem oppidum et locī nātūrā et colle mūnītum, Marcus Octavius began to besiege Salonae; it is, by the way, a town fortified by its situation upon a hill.

- a. Parentheses are often, as in the last example, introduced by autem.
- b. Cēterum is also used for "but" (lit., as to the rest), especially by Livy. Thus:—

Nondum bellum erat, ceterum iam bellī causā certāmina . . . serēbantur, there was not yet war, but quarrels were already being stirred up with a view to war (Līv., xxi., 6, 1).

Atqui and Tamen.

- 569. (1.) $Atqu\bar{\imath}$, and yet, must not be confounded with atque. It stands only at the beginning of an independent sentence, and asserts emphatically the truth of that sentence in spite of what went before it.
- " \bar{O} rem" inquis "inexplicabilem!" atqui explicanda est, "oh inexplicable situation," you say; and yet it must be explained.
- (2.) Tamen is the regular word for "yet," "however." It does not stand first unless the concessive character of the thing said is to be emphasized rather than the thing itself. Thus:—

Pausaniās accūsātus capitis absolvitur, multātur tamen pecūniā, Pausanias is accused of a capital crime and, though not condemned to death, is yet punished by a fine; quae tametsī Caesar intellegēbat, tamen quam mītissimē potest lēgūtōs appellat, although Caesar understood what this meant, he nevertheless addressed the ambassadors as affably as possible.

Words for THEREFORE (Illatives).

570. Itaque marks a thing as the ACTUAL consequence of something which precedes; igitur and (less common) $erg\bar{o}$ introduce the LOGICAL consequence of an argument; proinde (= "accordingly") is used only with commands and exhortations (imperative and subjunctive). Thus:—

Aristīdēs aequālis ferē fuit Themistoclī; itaque cum eō $d\bar{e}$ prīncipātū contendit, Aristides was of about the same age as Themistocles: therefore he was his rival in aiming at the chief magistracy.

Bēstiolae quaedam \bar{u} num diem $v\bar{v}$ vunt; ex h \bar{v} s igitur h \bar{v} r \bar{u} oct \bar{u} v \bar{u} quae mortua est, pr \bar{v} vect \bar{u} aet \bar{u} te mortua est, certain animalculæ live but one day; one of these therefore which dies at the eighth hour, dies in advanced age.

Proinde fac animum tantum habeās quantō opus sit, see therefore that you have as much courage as is needed.

a. Igitur does not often stand first, except in Sallust, Livy, and the later writers.

Words for FOR.

571. These are nam, namque, enim, etenim. Namque and etenim imply a little closer connection than the others, and are much less common. Enim is weaker than nam, and in classical Latin never begins its clause. Thus:—

Nam $m\bar{a}ximum$ $\bar{o}rn\bar{a}mentum$ $am\bar{i}citiae$ tollit, $qu\bar{i}$ ex $e\bar{a}$ tollit $ver\bar{e}cundiam$, for he takes away the greatest ornament of friendship who takes respect from it (Cic., Am., 22, 82).

Sīc sē rēs habet; ut enim non omne vīnum sīc non omnis nātūra vetustāte coacēscit, so the matter stands; for, as in the case of wine, not every disposition grows sour with age (Cic., Sen., 18, 65).

a. Neque enim is much commoner than nam non, and in general the Romans had a fancy for bringing in the negative as early as possible. Hence, usually, are found neque, nec umquam, etc., rather than et non, et numquam, etc.

Quidem, Sane, Vero, Certe, Profecto, Saltem, etc.

NOTE. These words are rather adverbs emphasizing the word before them than conjunctions, but their use in connecting sentences by throwing emphasis upon the first word in their clause makes it easier to understand them in connection with the preceding.

572. Quidem is the weakest of the above words, and is often best rendered in English by putting extra stress of voice upon the word before it; $s\bar{a}n\bar{e}$ and $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$ give perhaps the most emphasis. Thus:—

Vim hoc quidem est adferre; quid enim refert qua me ratione cogatis? cogitis corto, this is to apply force; for what matters it how you force me? force me you certainly do (Cic., Am., 8, 26).

Egő vērō $n\bar{o}n$ gravārer, $s\bar{\imath}$ mihž ipse $c\bar{o}nf\bar{\imath}derem$, I certainly should make no objection if I had confidence in myself (Cic., Am., 5, 17).

Profectō negāre nōn potes, surely you cannot deny it (Cic., Verr., ii., 18, 44).

 $\vec{E}ripe\ mih\tilde{\imath}\ hunc\ dol\bar{o}rem\ aut\ minue\ saltem$, take this grief from me or at least alleviate it (Cic., Att., ix., 6, 5).

a. Equidem is used, as a rule, rather than quidem, if the particle is to be connected with an $eg\delta$ (expressed or implied); as:—

Id equidem egŏ certō sciō, that I know for sure (Plaut., Bacc., iii., 3, 3); "nihil" inquit "equidem nōvī," "I know nothing about it," he says (Cic., Dīv., i., 6, 11).

But: Ex $m\bar{e}$ quidem nihil audire potuisses, you could have heard nothing from me (Cic., N. D., i., 21, 57).

Equidem is, however, occasionally used with the second and third persons.

- b. Ne...quidem, "not...even," "not...either," takes the emphatic word or words between its parts. (Cf. 563, 2, a.)
- c. Sī quidem corrects a previous statement, and is equivalent to "that is, if;" as: --

Apud Graecos antiquissimum est genus poetarum, si quidem Homērus fuit ante Romam conditam, among the Greeks poets are a very ancient class — that is, if Homer lived before the founding of Rome.

Etiam and Quoque.

573. Etiam, even, also, generally stands before the word or phrase which it emphasizes; quoque,* also, even, always after the word it emphasizes, or second in the clause when it applies to it as a whole. Thus:—

Iūstitiam quī tollunt, etiam adversus deōs impīī iūdicandī sunt, those who do away with justice are to be judged disloyal even towards the gods.

Quā tempestāte Karthāginiēnsēs plēraeque Āfricae imperitābant, Cyrēnēnsēs quoque māgnī fuēre, at the time when the Carthaginians ruled most of Africa, the Cyrenaeans also were great (Sall., Jug., 79, 2).

a. Et is rarely used for etiam in classical prose, except with certain particles, nam, $qu\bar{n}n$, sed, $s\bar{n}c$, simul, $v\bar{e}rum$, etc., and with the demonstrative pronouns or ipse; as:—

Et illud videndum quantō magis hominēs mala fugiant, quam sequantur bona, we must notice this also, how much more men shun the wrong than they pursue the right (Cic., Part. ōr., 26, 90).

In Aequos trānsiit et ipsos bellum molientes, he marched over into the land of the Aequi [who were] themselves planning war (Liv., vi., 2, 14).

INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

Single Questions.

574. Ne is always used to ask questions simply for information, and does not show whether an affirmative or a negative answer is expected. It is always attached enclitically to an emphatic word in its clause, usually to the first word (i. e., the most emphatic one). Thus:—

Visne fortūnam experīrī? do you want to try fortune? omnisne pecūnia solūta est? is all the money paid?

* Not to be confused with quoque (ablative of quisque, each).

- a. Ne can be attached to any kind of word except prepositions of one syllable. Cf. in nostrāne potestāte, in our power? (Cic., Fīn., ii, 32, 104).
- b. Sometimes the context or the situation shows whether an affirmative or a negative answer is expected, especially with words of thinking or perceiving. Thus:—

Vidēsne abundāre $m\bar{e}$ $\bar{o}ti\bar{o}$, do you not see that I have plenty of leisure? (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, ii., 11, 26); $ub\bar{t}$ tua aut $qu\bar{u}lis$ potēsne $d\bar{v}cere$, can you say where or what your own [mind is]? (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 27, 67).

- c. Ne is occasionally appended to another interrogative word; as, uterne, utrumne, quantane, numne.
- d. In the dramatic and other poets $v\bar{\imath}n$? $vid\bar{e}n$? satin? etc., are often found for $v\bar{\imath}sne$? $vid\bar{e}sne$? satisne? etc.
- 575. Nonne is used to introduce a question to which an affirmative answer is expected. Thus:—

Canis nonne lupo similis est, is not a dog like a wolf?

- a. So also nēmone, nihilne, numquamne, nūsquamne.
- b. Nonne is not used by Plautus and is very rare in Terence, the simple ne being used instead. Cf. 574, b.
- 576. Num is used to introduce a question to which a negative answer is expected. Thus:—

Num putās mē tam dēmentem fuisse? do you imagine that I was so mad?

577. Sometimes questions expressing wonder or disapproval are put without any particle; as:—

 $Rog\bar{a}s$? you ask? can you ask? $t\bar{u}$ id $n\bar{e}sci\bar{e}b\bar{a}s$? you did n't know it? Archiam $eg\check{o}$ $n\bar{o}n$ $d\bar{u}ligam$? shall I not esteem Archias?

- 578. An is used to introduce a single direct question (1) when it implies a supposed answer to a previous question, or (2) when it strengthens a previous statement by hinting that the thing suggested in the question is inconceivable. Thus:—
- (1.) Quid ad mē venītis? an speculandī causā, why come ye to me? for the purpose of spying?

- (2.) Orātōrem īrāscī minimē decet; an tibi īrāscī tum vidētur cum quid in causīs vehementius dīcit, it is not at all becoming for an orator to give way to wrath; or does he perhaps seem to you to give way to wrath when he says something violently in pleading a case?
- 579. In indirect questions ne and num are used without appreciable difference; $n\bar{o}nne$ implies the answer "yes." Thus:—

Quaeritur, idemne sit pertinācia et persevērantia, the question is, whether persistence and perseverance are the same.

Rōmānī speculābantur, num sollicitātī animī sociōrum ab rēge Perseō essent, the Romans were trying to find out whether the feelings of their allies had been alienated by king Perseus.

Quaesierās ex mē. nonne putārem invenīrī vērum potuisse, you [had] asked me whether I did not think the truth might have been found out.

a. The phrases haud sciō an, nēsciō an, dubitō an, are apt to imply an affirmative answer, and are thus often equivalent to the English "I am inclined to think." Thus:—

Aristotelem haud sciō an rēctē dīxerim prīncipem philosophōrum, I am inclined to think I could justly call Aristotle the chief of philosophers.

b. Forsitan (i. e., fors sit an) always takes the subjunctive in good prose; as, forsitan quaerātis, $qu\bar{\imath}$ iste terror sit, perhaps you ask, what that alarm is (Cic., $R\bar{\imath}sc.$ Am., 2, 5). Fortasse takes the indicative.

Disjunctive Questions.

580. DISJUNCTIVE or DOUBLE questions (whether direct or indirect) are introduced by utrum ... an, or ne(num)...an, or by an alone with the second member, the first having no particle. Thus:—

Utrum $n\bar{e}sc\bar{i}s$ quam alt \bar{e} adscender is an $pr\bar{o}$ nihil \bar{o} id $put\bar{a}s$, do you not know how high you have climbed, or do you count it as nothing?

Rōmamne veniam, an hōc maneam, an Arpīnum fugiam? shall I go to Rome, or stay here, or fly to Arpinum? perquīritur, virtūs suamne propter dīgnitātem an propter frūctum aliquem expetūtur, the question [for our exhaustive discussion, per] is, whether virtue is desired for its own worth or for some reward.

Postrēma syllaba brevis an longa sit, in versū nihil rēfert, it makes no difference in verse whether the last syllable is short or long.

a. In short, sharp indirect questions of two members, ne is sometimes used with the second member, the first having no particle. Thus:—

Datames experīrī voluit vērum falsumne sibi esset relātum, Datames wished to see whether a true or a false report had been brought to him.

b. For an occasionally anne is used; as: —

Quaerendum est, utrum ūna species sit anne plūrēs, we much ask whether there is one species or several.

- c. Real disjunctive questions must be carefully distinguished from single questions, which involve alternatives in points of detail merely. In these last, not an but aut or vel is used. Thus, in quid ergō? $s\bar{o}lem\ d\bar{v}cam$ aut $l\bar{u}nam$ aut $caelum\ deum$, the question is, whether such things as the sun and moon and sky are to be called gods; but in $s\bar{o}lem\ d\bar{v}cam$ an $l\bar{u}nam$ an $caelum\ deum$, the question is, to which one of the three the name of god is to be given. (Cf. 565, 2, a.)
- 581. If the second member of a disjunctive question is negative, it is introduced by $ann\bar{o}n$ or by necne. $Ann\bar{o}n$ is more common for direct questions, necne for indirect. Thus:—

Isne est, quem quaerō, annōn, is that the man I am looking for or not?

Dī utrum sint necne sint, quaeritur, the question is whether there are or are not gods.

YES and NO.

582. The answer to a question in Latin is regularly given by repeating its emphatic word for affirmation, and by repeating that word with $n\bar{o}n$ for denial. Thus:—

Mēne vīs? tē. Do you want me? Yes.

Estne frater intus? non est. Is brother at home? No.

- a. Sometimes also an affirmative answer is given simply by ita, ita vērō, ita est, etiam, sānē, quidem, certē, or māximē; a negative answer by nōn, nōn ita, nōn vērō, or minimē.
- b. Immō and immō vērō give a strong affirmative answer to a question in which some doubt is latent, or contradict strongly a negative question. Thus:—

Non igitur praestat patria omnibus officis? immo voro, is not then patriotism more important than all other relations of duty? Yea, verily.

Num Sulla Rōmae fuit? immō longē āfuit, was Sulla at Rome? On the contrary, he was far away.

Interjections.

583. The INTERJECTIONS are rather exclamatory sounds than words in the proper sense, and have no syntax. The chief Latin interjections are as follows:—

eu! well done! \bar{a} ! $(\bar{a}h$!) ah! aha! ah! aha! euge! bravo! good! apage! be gone! euax! hail! (used by Plautus atat! (atatte! atatatae! etc.), only). oh! alas! lo! euhoe! hail! ha! (hahae! ha!ha!ha!) au! oh! hold! ho! ecce! lo! behold! ehem ! ha! what! hei! (ei!) woe! ah me! ěheu! alas! hem ! (em !) oho! indeed! alas! eho! (ehodum!) ho! holloa! heu! oh! oh! alas! ēia! (hēia!) ah! indeed! $\bar{e}n!$ lo! behold! heus! ho there! say!

hui! hah! ho! oh! io! ho! hurrah! hail! malum ! the deuce! \bar{o} / ($\bar{o}h$ /) O! oh! ah! *ŏhē!* ho! holloa! oho! oho! aha! oi! oh me! alas! papae! strange!

phu! (fu!) foh! fugh! phy! pish! tush! $pr\bar{o}!$ ($pr\bar{o}h!$) oh! st! hush! whist! tatae! strange! so! vae! woe! alas! vah! (vaha!) ah! alas!

- a. Of these o, ecce, ehem, en, papae, tatae, vah, express As-TONISHMENT; euhoe, euax, io, express Joy or ecstasy; ĕheu, hei, heu, oi, vae, express sorrow; eho, ehodum, heus, ŏhē, are used to CALL ATTENTION; ēia, euge, hēia, express PRAISE; prō, $pr\bar{o}h$, are used in ASSEVERATION.
- b. To the interjections may be added the mild oaths: Eccere, by Ceres! $\bar{E}castor$, by Castor! gracious! Edepol, or Pol, by Pollux! gad! mehercule, (hercle, etc.), by Hercules! thunder! mē dius fidius, by Jove! and the expressions Dī meliora (duint), God forbid! (lit., give better things); Dī vostram fidem, Heavens! (lit., O gods, [I appeal to] your honor); pro deorum atque hominum fidem, heavens and earth! pro di immortālēs, by the immortal gods! periī, oh dear! (lit., I am ruined), etc.
- c. Here may also be mentioned the affirmative particle $n\bar{e}$, verily (not to be confused with the negative $n\bar{e}$). It is used only with personal pronouns and demonstrative pronouns or adverbs. Thus: -

Nē egỗ homỗ ĩnfēlīx fuī, verily I was an unlucky being (Plaut., Am., i., 1, 172).

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS (Ordo verborum).

One of the most important differences between Latin sentences and English sentences is the way in which the words are arranged. In English ordinarily the subject comes first (an adjective which modifies it standing, however, before it), the verb next, then the object, and so on. The lack of caseendings makes such an arrangement necessary in order to tell how the words are related to each other. In Latin, on the other hand, the gender, number, case, mood, tense, etc., of the words are shown by their *endings* simply, and their *order* is used for another purpose, namely:—

- 584. In Latin sentences the words are arranged chiefly to show which are the more emphatic ones, i. e. (roughly speaking), which would receive greater stress of voice in English.
- 585. This arrangement is based upon the very simple principle that the *first* word in any combination is more emphatic than the *second*, the *second* more emphatic than the *third*, and so on. Thus:—

Bonus vir means "a good man," vir bonus means "a good man; "lātrant canēs means "dogs bark," canēs lātrant means "dogs bark."

In the same way, Gallos Caesar vīcit means "Caesar conquered THE GAULS;" and verberat crūdēliter servōs means "he is beating the slaves cruelly."

- NCTE 1. When the expression becomes longer and more complex the shades of relative emphasis are too numerous and too fine to be at all adequately expressed by stress of voice, but a little practice in reading Latin so as to understand it without translating enables one to feel the force and delicacy of the emphases indicated by the word-arrangement. The pupil should accustom himself thus to feel the differences in arrangements like the following:—
 - (1.) Omnēs herī Rōmam vēnimus. Herī Rōmam omnēs vēnimus. Rōmam omnēs herī vēnimus. Vēnimus herī omnēs Rōmam.
 - (2.) Hī puerī facile Latīnē scrībunt. Puerī hī Latīnē facile scrībunt. Scrībunt facile hī puerī Latīnē. Latīnē facile scrībunt hī puerī. Facile hī puerī scrībunt Latīnē.

- (3.) Fortis mīles numquam tergum vertet. Numquam mīles fortis tergum vertet. Tergum fortis mīles numquam vertet. Vertet numquam fortis mīles tergum.
- NOTE 2. In all except the very simplest sentences, some of the words are used as single units in the sentence, others are grouped in phrases, and these last have more complicated relations of emphasis; for instance, a relation to the other words of their own phrase and a relation to the sentence as a whole. Now it is chiefly the relation of emphasis which a word has to its own phrase that we mark by stress of voice in English. Therefore for the English-speaking student of Latin it is especially necessary to observe how the words are grouped in phrases; also to notice that the emphasis of a phrase may be increased by separating its words from each other, because then the attention has to be held over from the first word of the phrase until its last word arrives to complete it. Compare the arrangements in groups (2) and (3) above.

The following practical rules on points of detail may be given:-

- 586. In combinations of a noun and an adjective the noun comes first, unless the adjective is distinctly emphatic.*
- 587. Adjective pronouns (meus, alius, hic, ille, etc.) are more often found before their nouns, because when used at all they are oftener emphatic than not.
- * The following considerations will make the reason for this rule clear: In such an expression as "dogs bark" there are two contrasts latent, a contrast between dogs and other animals and a contrast between barking and other actions. If we emphasize "dogs," we bring the one contrast more sharply before the hearer's attention; if we emphasize "bark," we do the same by the other contrast. In expressions, however, consisting of a noun and an adjective, there are further possibilities. If we say "a brick house," we do, as before, contrast sharply a brick house with some other kind of house; but if we say "a brick house," while we may mean thus sharply to contrast a house of brick with other buildings of brick, we may also mean simply to mark the complex idea "brick house" as a single thing which we make the subject of our thought. There is a subtle connection between our word accent and stress of voice which makes us utter the word "house" in this last case somewhat more forcibly than the word "brick," and the Roman did the analogous thing in putting the noun before the adjective in such cases. When there is a doubt about the proper position in any given case, it will be found that if the adjective is put first, not belonging there, the effect is one of over-emphasis (turgid rhetoric).



- 588. Adverses are apt to be more emphatic than the verbs, participles, or adjectives which they modify, and therefore rather more commonly stand before them.
- 589. Prepositions regularly stand just before their nouns, or with an adjective or genitive intervening. (But see 431, d and e.)
- 590. Conjunctions and other connectives stand between the words or clauses which they connect.
- a. The following words stand after the word which they emphasize, or occupy the second place in a clause when they apply to it as a whole (hence they are called POST-POSITIVE):—

autem, but, besides, and. enim. for. igitur, therefore, then. interim, meanwhile. quidem, in fact. quoque, also, even. $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, in truth, but.

b. Que, and (and ve, or *), are attached enclitically to the second of two words which they connect, and, when they connect phrases or clauses, to the first word of the second phrase or clause. Thus:—

 $Pl\bar{u}s$ minusve, more or less; $sen\bar{u}tus$ populusque $R\bar{o}-m\bar{u}nus$, the senate and people of Rome; $corpora\ c\bar{u}r\bar{u}re\ e\bar{o}s\ i\bar{u}ssit$ seque $par\bar{u}t\bar{o}s\ ad\ omnia\ hab\bar{e}re$, he bade them take rest and refreshment and be ready for any development of affairs.

- 591. RELATIVE and INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS, besides their pronominal functions, also serve as connectives, and therefore stand first in their clauses (sometimes with a preposition before them).
- 592. The VOCATIVE CASE generally, and the verb inquam always, stand after one or more words.
- 593. A word may often be made particularly emphatic by being put even before the particle or pronoun which introduces a sentence. Thus:—

Haec cum Caesarī nūntiāta essent, lēgātōs ad sē venīre iūssit, when this was reported to Caesar, he ordered the ambassadors to come to him.

^{*} Cf. also the interrogative ne, 574.

THE PERIOD (Periodus).

- 594. By a PERIOD is usually meant a sentence consisting of a main clause and one, or, generally, several subordinate clauses, in which the parts are gracefully balanced and the sense is not completed until the end. But any sentence in which complete sense is not made until the last word is reached may be called a *periodic* sentence.
- 595. The VERB, from its nature, makes complete sense, unless some word before it indicates the contrary; and therefore in a periodic construction the verb tends to stand last.
- a. In dependent clauses this tendency of the verb to stand last is very much stronger than in independent clauses.
- NOTE. The Romans were especially fond of a more or less complete periodic structure of sentences in connected writing. This is only another way of saying that it was a Roman habit of thought to put the least emphatic part of a statement into verb form.*
- 596. (1.) It follows from the tendency to a periodic structure that in Latin almost all kinds of subordinate clauses more commonly stand before their main clause; but:—
- (2.) RESULT CLAUSES generally, CAUSAL and RELATIVE CLAUSES not uncommonly, and others sometimes, come after the main clause.
- a. The difference between a periodic and a non-periodic structure of sentence may be seen in the following:—
- Periodic. Scīpiō, ut Hannibalem ex Ītaliā dēdūceret, exercitum in Āfricam trāiēcit.
- Non-periodic. Scīpiō in Āfricam trāiēcit exercitum, ut Hannibalem ex Ītaliā dēdūceret.
 - Note 1. It is a very common form of period to begin the sentence thus
- * The proportion of sentences with 'the verb last in Cicero is somewhat more than fifty per cent, in Caesar about seventy-five per cent, and in Latin prose in general rather less than sixty per cent.



with some word belonging to the main clause, then to insert the subordinate clause or clauses, and finally to bring in the rest of the main clause with its verb standing last. This is, in fact, the kind of sentence to which the name "period" most properly applies, periodus being the Greek word $\pi\epsilon\rho lo\delta os$ ($\pi\epsilon\rho l$, round, $\delta\delta ds$, way, road) = Latin ambitus, a going round, i. e., a coming back to the starting-point.

NOTE 2. The heaping of finite verbs at the end of a period should be avoided. Generally there is an infinitive or other close modifier of the main verb which emphasis allows to be kept for the last place but one, thus separating the verb of the dependent clause from the main verb, which closes the period.

NOTE 3. The fondness of the Romans for simplicity and directness created in their speech a certain tendency to make the most emphatic part of their thought also grammatically the subject of the sentence, — in other words, the emphatic word (occupying the first place in the sentence) is a little oftener the subject than not. The common doctrine, however, which teaches that the regular order for a Latin sentence is "subject first and verb last," is erroneous, and besides causing various misconceptions in points of detail gives the learner a very un-Latin mechanical style. While it is true that of the sentences which have a subject expressed about fifty-two per cent have the subject first, and about fifty-seven per cent have the verb last, only about thirty-four per cent have both subject first and verb last. In those sentences, furthermore, which have no subject expressed, the verb comes last only about fifty-eight times out of a hundred.

- 597. (1.) In historical narrative, philosophical exposition, and other continuous writing, successive sentences are more closely united into a series in Latin than in English.
- (2.) This is done largely by choosing as the most emphatic word to be placed first in each sentence one that refers (especially by way of contrast) to something mentioned in the latter part of the previous sentence. Examples are:—

Sed quis egő sum aut quae est in mē facultās? doctōrum est ista cōnsuētūdō eaque Graecōrum, ut iīs pōnātur dē quō disputent quamvīs subitō, but who am I or what skill is there in me? To the trained philosophers, and those, too, Greek philosophers, belongs that habit of allowing a question to be set them for discussion on the spur of the moment (Cic., Am., 5, 17).

Quā rē sibǐ habeant sapientiae nōmen et invidiōsum et obscūrum; concēdant ut virī bonī fuerint. Nē id quidem facient: negābunt id nisi sapientī posse concēdī, therefore let them keep for themselves the invidious and vague word "philosopher," but grant that these people were good MEN. They will not do even this: they will say it cannot be granted of any one but a philosopher (Cic., Am., 5, 18).

Sollemne adlātum ex Arcadiā īnstituisse Pāna venerantēs ... quem Romani deinde vocaverunt Inuum. Huic deditīs lūdicrō, cum sollemne notum esset, īnsidiatos ob īram praedae āmīssae latronēs, cum Romulus vī sē dēfendisset, Remum cēpisse, captum rēgī Amūliō trādidisse, ūltrō ac-Crīminī māximē dabant, etc., he had established cūsantēs. a sacred festival brought from Arcadia, consisting of certain rites performed by young men in honor of Pan, whom the Romans afterwards called Inuus. Since this was a well known event, the robbers, who were full of rage at the loss of their booty, made a plot to attack [the shepherd boys] while busied with the festival. Romulus succeeded in defending himself, but they took Remus, and, having taken him, handed him over to king Amulius with a gratuitous accusation. Their main charge was, etc. (Līv., i., 5, 2-3).

Anaphora and Chiasmus.

- 598. The Romans had also a great fancy for antitheses, or the setting off against each other of the corresponding parts of two expressions or statements.
- (1.) When the corresponding parts of two or more phrases, clauses, or sentences stand in the same order, the arrangement is called ANAPHORA.*
- (2.) When the corresponding parts stand in opposite orders, the arrangement is called CHIASMUS, or the *chiastic* order. Thus:—
 - * From the Greek ἀναφέρω, bring up; hence, the repeating of the order.



ANAPHORA.

Quid dīcam dē mōribus facillimīs, dē pietāte in mātrem, līberālitāte in sorvrēs, bonitāte in suōs, iūstitiā in omnēs? (Cic., Am., 3, 11).

Ita rēcta ingenia dēbilitat summa mīlitum y verēcundia, perversa confir-rium scelus, sī camut audācia (Plīn., Ep., iv., 7). Phil., xiv., 3, 6).

CHIASMUS.

Aequē iūcunda erit simplicitās dissentientis quam comprobantis auctoritās (Plīn., Ep., iii., 4, 9).

Sī hostium fuit ille sanguīs, summa mīlitum pietās; nefā-rium scelus, sī cīvium (Cic., Phil., xiv., 3, 6).

a. When alter . . . alter are used, referring to two things already mentioned, they are usually arranged chiastically; as:—

In quo quid potest esse mali, cum mors nec ad vivos pertineat nec ad mortuos? Alteri $n\bar{u}ll\bar{\iota}$ sunt, alteros $n\bar{o}n$ attinget, but in this what evil can there be, since death concerns neither the living nor the dead? The one have no existence, and it will not touch the others (Cic., $T\bar{u}sc.$, i., 38, 91).

NOTE. In chiasmus the balanced phrases consist usually of only two terms each, and the name comes from the resemblance to the Greek letter X (chi), suggested by the criss-cross arrangement.

CERTAIN MINOR POINTS OF ORDER.

- 599. Certain minor points with regard to the arrangement of the sentence deserve notice, as follows:—
- a. The more rhetorical writers, especially Cicero, were careful to make their sentences euphonious and rhythmically smooth. This they accomplished by choosing * words which in the positions required by their relations of emphasis produced a pleasing variety by their alternations of long with short syllables and of accented with unaccented parts, and also by paying particular attention to the end of the sentence.

Cicero declares himself especially fond of certain cadences at the end of a sentence; namely, $- \cup -$ (cretic), as, $p\bar{o}stulant$; $- \cup \cup$ (dactyl), as, $r\bar{e}ximus$; $- \cup \cup - \supseteq$ (1st paeon with

* Not by changing the order, as if the Romans thought their sentences out in words first, and afterwards settled the order.

- a trochee or spondee), as, esse $vide\bar{a}tur$; and, above all, $\cup \cup$ (double trochee), as, $comprob\bar{a}vit$. On the other hand, the rhythm $\cup \cup \cup$ (dactyl and spondee, *i. e.*, the ending of a regular hexameter verse), was rather avoided; as, $d\bar{e}gere$ possit. It should be observed, however, that a false emphasis is never allowed for the sake of a more rhythmical ending.
- b. The emphases of the early part of a sentence are often fixed by the *logical sequence of the ideas* in their relation to the previous sentence, but towards the end the distinctions of emphasis are less sharp, and it frequently depends on the mere choice of the writer from which of two or three slightly different points of view the closing ideas shall be presented.
- c. Not infrequently the verb occupies the last place but one in the sentence. The commonest cases are (1) when the verb stands between a noun and a modifying adjective or genitive, (2) when the verb precedes an infinitive which depends upon it, (3) when the subject of the verb is kept for the last place. Thus:—
 - (1.) Ut ūlla intermīssiō fīat officī (Cic., Am., 2, 8).
 - (2.) Quantās vix queō dīcere (Cic., Am., 6, 22).
- (3.) $N\bar{e}$ $t\bar{e}$... disserentem deficiat oratio (Cic., $R\bar{e}$ $P\bar{u}b$., i., 23, 37).

NOTE. Sometimes there is an evident gain in emphasis in thus making the verb a little more prominent than the other word, but sometimes the difference in emphasis is so slight that the arrangement seems rather to have been made for euphony. Thus, in the last case above, the difference in emphasis is easily appreciable according as $d\bar{e}ficiat$ $\bar{o}r\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$ or $\bar{o}r\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$ deficiat is written; in the second case it is less easy to feel an emphasis on $que\bar{o}$; in the first case the shade of emphasis is intangible, but the rhetorical effect of the separation of intermissio and offici is very distinct.

d. The difference between the ordinary accent of English and of Latin sentences sometimes tends to make a Latin emphasis seem unnatural to us, especially at the end of a sentence. For so far as we mark emphasis by position at all, the last place in our sentences is the most emphasic.

NOTE 1. Such cases occur chiefly -

(1.) In carefully balanced pairs of sentences where all the words are



forcible, as in the second example of anaphora (598) above. Thus: ita rēcta ingenia dēbilitat verēcundia, perversa confirmat audācia. Here there are three pairs of contrasts, and it is difficult to see that one is stronger than another, except that an English accent tends to make us give the contrast between verēcundia and audācia a little more force than the others. To the Roman, however, so far as there was a difference it was in favor of the contrast between rēcta ingenia and perversa.

- (2.) In a similar single sentence, where the last word has a certain emphasis, though the words before it are still more emphatic; as, ex tribus primis generibus, longē praestat, meā sententiā, rēgium (Cic., Rē Pūb., i., 45, 69). The proper relative emphases here can be expressed roughly by translating thus: "The royal is in MY OPINION BY FAR the best of the FIRST THREE KINDS."
- (3.) When the last word is a proper name. Thus, the sentence tantum abest ut nostra mirēmur, ut ūsque eō difficilēs āc mōrōsī sīmus, ut nobīs nōn satisfaciat ipse Dēmosthenēs (Cic., Ōr., 29, 104), means "so far am I from admiring my own efforts that I am critical and exacting to such a degree that Demosthenes HIMSELF does not SATISFY ME." At first sight the meaning might seem to be "that I am not satisfied with DEMOSTHENES HIMSELF," but the Latin order for that would be ut ipse Dēmosthenēs nōbīs nōn satisfaciat.*
- * In thus giving a different explanation from the usual one of passages like the two last quoted, I regret that it would take too much space to set forth here the reasons for my opinion. A study of very many instances has convinced me that this opinion is correct. It is, of course, inherently possible that the last word in the cases given should be the most emphatic, and tradition has made it seem more natural to regard them so; but when I put the following arrangements beside each other:—

longē praestat meā sententiā rēgium;
rēgium meā sententiā longē praestat;
ipse Dēmosthenēs nöbis nön satisfacit;
nöbis nön satisfacit ipse Dēmosthenēs,
and find in Cicero near this last order the following:—
itaque sē pūrgāns iocūtur Dēmosthenēs,

where nobody makes "Demosthenes" the emphatic word, and, on the other hand,

ut Aeschinī nē Dēmosthenēs quidem videātur Atticē dīcere, and cum etiam Dēmosthenēs exagitētur ut putidus (Ōr., 8, 26 and 27),

I cannot believe that so practical a people as the Romans used the different arrangements only for the sake of variety, nor can I find any better explanation than the one suggested. NOTE 2. So also an emphasis is sometimes repeated for rhetorical effect where an alternation of emphasis would seem more natural to us. Thus: —

Quālis, ut arbitror, nēmō umquam erit, ut confirmāre possum, nēmō certē fuit (Cic., Am., 3, 10); nam plūrimum fidē, plūrimum vēritāte, plūrimum intellegentiā praestat (Plin., Ep., iii., 2, 3).

Here the Roman mind is concentrated for the moment on the given expressions as *individual* phrases, while we are inclined to think rather of their relation to each other as parts of a whole. Sometimes, however, we, too, should repeat the emphasis as the Roman does. Thus:—

Quā rē quod dandum est amīcitiae, largē dabitur ā mē, ut tēcum agam, Servī, non secus āc sī meus esset frāter, quī mihī est cārissimus, isto in loco; quod tribuendum est officio, fideī, religionī, id ita moderābor ut meminerim, mē contrā amīcī studium pro amīcī perīculo dicere, . . . so as to remember that though it is a friend whose desire I oppose, it is also a friend whom my speech tries to shield from danger (Cic., Mūr., 4, 10).

VERSIFICATION (Versificātiō).

- 600. In poetry, unlike prose, the words are marked off into regular divisions of *time*, called FEET ($ped\bar{e}s$). A combination of a fixed number of feet constitutes a line or VERSE (versus).
- 601. The unit of measurement is the quantity or duration of one short syllable or one MORA. (See 26, a.)
- 602. Feet consist of three morae, or of four morae, a few also of five morae, making thus divisions of time like the measures of music, as follows:—
 - (1.) Three-time measure (3/8).
 Trochee _ (musically | | | | | | |), as, arma.
 Iambus _ (" | | | | | |), " erant.
 Tribrach _ (" | | | | | | |), " facere.
 (2.) Four-time (or two-time) measure (4/8 = 2/4).
 Dactyl _ (musically | | | | | |), as, corpora.
 Anapaest _ (" | | | | |), " dominī.
 Spondee _ (" | | | |), " fundunt.
 Proceleusmatic _ (" | | | |), " hominibus.

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(3.) Five-time measure \binom{5}{2}.*
    Cretic _ _ _ (musically | | | | | | ), as, castitās.
    Bacchīus -- ( "
                            Catōnēs.
    1st Paeon - ... ( " [ [ ] ), " temporibus
    4th Paeon .... ( "
                            fff), " celeritās.
  To these may be added the following: -:
 a. Six-time measure (\S = \frac{3}{4}).
 Greater Ionic _ _ _ (musically [ ] ), as, correximus.
 fff), " terrificant.
 Choriambus _ _ _ ( "
 Note. Several other varieties of feet are named by the ancient gram-
marians, but are discarded by the usage of to-day, as unnecessary in ex-
plaining Latin versification. They are: -
         Pyrrhic . . ,
                           as. deus.
         Amphibrach - - ,
                              amāre.
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Antibacchius - - - ,
                             Romānus.
Molossus - - - ,
                             contendunt.
Dispondee ---
                            conflixerunt.
                        66
                            comprobāvit.
Ditrochee - \cup - \cup,
                        66
Dijambus \circ - \circ - \circ
                            amāverant.
                        "
Antispast \circ - - \circ,
                            adhaesisse.
                        ..
2d Paeon U - U U,
                            potentia.
                        "
                             animātus.
3d Paeon UU - U,
                        66
                             amāvērunt.
1st Epitrite ∨ - - - ,
                        "
                             conditores.
2d Epitrite - - - ,
                        "
                             discordiās.
3d Epitrite ---,
                        "
                             addūxistis.
4th Epitrite - - - -,
```

It will be seen that the four-syllabled feet are merely compounds of the two-syllabled.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF VERSE.

603. Verse is distinguished according to the kind of foot which forms its basis; as, ductylic, anapaestic, trochaic, iambic, Ionic, etc.

^{*} This time is very rare in music.

604. Most kinds of verse are named, according to the number of feet which they contain, dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter (i. e., measures of two, three, four, five, or six feet).

Thus, a dactylic hexameter is a dactylic line of six feet.

- 605. Trochaic, iambic, and anapaestic verses are either
 - (1.) Reckoned by pairs of feet (dipodies), or —
- (2.) Named by Latin adjectives in -ārius, used as nouns, and denoting the number of feet in the verse.

Thus, an iambic line of six feet is called either an IAMBIC TRIMETER (line of three measures or dipodies) or an IAMBIC SENARIUS (line of six iambic feet); a trochaic line of eight feet is called either a TROCHAIC TETRAMETER or a TROCHAIC OCTONARIUS.

- a. A combination of two verses is sometimes called a distich; a half verse, a HEMISTICH.
- b. A verse sometimes lacks a syllable at the end, and is then called CATALECTIC; if it is complete it is called ACATALECTIC; if it lacks a whole foot it is sometimes called BRACHYCATALECTIC.
- c. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable or foot at the end, and is then called HYPERCATALECTIC OF HYPERMETER.
- d. The term PENTHEMIMERIS is sometimes used to indicate a portion of a verse consisting of two feet and a half (measured always from the beginning). Less common are HEPTHEMIMERIS (three feet and a half), TRIHEMIMERIS (one foot and a half), and other like terms.

METRICAL ACCENT; THESIS AND ARSIS.

- 606. One syllable in every foot of a verse receives a greater stress of voice than the others. This is called the metrical accent, or ICTUS.
- 607. The part of the foot which receives the ictus is called the THESIS, the rest of the foot is called the ARSIS.*
- * Thesis (from $\tau i\theta \eta \mu i$, put) means the downward movement of the foot in beating time or marching; ARSIS (from $\alpha I \rho \omega$, raise), the upward beat or raising of the foot. Through a misunderstanding of the Greek, the meaning of the terms thesis and arsis has commonly been reversed, the accented part of the verse being called the arsis and the unaccented part the thesis.



NOTE. The alternation of thesis and arsis produces what is called the RHYTHM of the verse.

CAESURA AND DIAERESIS.

- 608. (1.) The ending of a word within a foot is called CAESURA (i. e., a cutting); the ending of a word coinciding with the end of a foot is called DIAERESIS.
- (2) In the hexameter and several other kinds of verse some one caesura generally marks a pause in the sense, and is called the PRINCIPAL caesura, or the caesura of the verse.
- a. In the hexameter the principal caesura occurs most commonly in the third foot; sometimes in the fourth foot. In the latter case there is usually also a slight caesural break in the second foot. A diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot is called the BUCOLIC diaeresis, from its frequent occurrence in Greek pastoral poetry.
- b. When a caesura occurs after the thesis of a foot, it is called a MASCULINE caesura; in the middle of the arsis it is called a FEMININE caesura. A masculine caesura in the third foot is sometimes called a PENTHEMIMERIS, or PENTHEMIMERAL caesura.

For examples see the dactylic hexameter (614).

FIGURES OF VERSIFICATION.

- 609. The following peculiarities in the treatment of words in verse are called FIGURES of versification:—
- (1.) A vowel, or m preceded by a vowel, is regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or h. This elision (striking out) consists in partially suppressing the vowel or syllable, not in wholly omitting it. It is also called SYNALOEPHA (smearing together). Thus:—

Quidve moror? s(ī) omnēs ūn(ō) ōrdin(e) habētis Achīvōs. (Verg., Ae., ii., 102.)

Cf. th' for the, in English.

a. The monosyllables do, dem, spē, spem, sim, stō, stem, quī (when plu-

- ral), with the interjections \bar{o} , heu, \bar{a} , $pr\bar{o}$, vae, $v\bar{a}h$, are not subject to elision, though \bar{o} is sometimes made short.
- b. Before a pause, a vowel which would otherwise be elided is sometimes retained, especially in comedy. The succession of vowel sounds * thus caused is called HIATUS (gaping); as:—

Ter sunt conati imponere Pelio Ossam. (Verg., G., i., 281.)

Note. When a long vowel or diphthong ending a Greek word thus remains unelided in the arsis, it is usually made short $(systol\bar{e})$, as the o of $P\bar{e}lio$ in the example.

- c. The elision of a syllable in m is sometimes called ECTHLIPSIS (squeezing out).
- d. In the early poets final s and its preceding vowel were sometimes elided before a vowel, and a vowel before final s was not always lengthened when the next word began with a consonant. (Cf. 18, d.)
- (2.) Sometimes the vowels i and e are made partial consonants, thus making one syllable of two. This is called SYNAERESIS. Thus:—

Aureā percussum virgā versumque venēnīs.

(Verg., Ac., vii., 190.)

- (3.) On the other hand, the resolution of one syllable into two is called DIAERESIS or DIALYSIS; as, sil-u-a for sil-va. This is chiefly confined to a few syllables consisting of v or gu, qu, su, and a following vowel, and is in most cases really a survival of an earlier form of the given word.
- (4.) A short syllable is occasionally lengthened $(diastol\bar{e})$. This occurs chiefly in the thesis before a caesura.
- (5.) A vowel at the end of a verse is occasionally elided before a vowel at the beginning of the next verse. This is called SYNAPHEIA. Thus:—

Omnia Mercuriō similis, vōcemque colōrem qu(e)

Et crīnēs flāvos, etc. (Verg., Ae., iv., 558, 559.)

- 610. The last syllable of any verse except anapaestic (see 630) may be either long or short indifferently.
 - 611. The metrical reading of verse is called SCANNING.
 - a. Care should be taken in scanning Latin verse not only to
- * The case of m preceded by a vowel is hardly an exception, because the m was so feebly pronounced as merely to nasalize the vowel. (Cf. 18, d.)

mark the feet accurately in regard to quantity and ictus, but also to keep the *words* distinct, observing the pauses as in prose. When the word-accent is at variance with the ictus, the latter is to be made the more prominent.

- 612. A fixed number of verses occurring in a regularly repeated order, whether the verses be of the same kind or of different kinds, is called a STROPHE or STANZA, and is often named for some poet; as, the *Alcaic* strophe or *Horatian* stanza, the *Sapphic* strophe.
- 613. A long syllable is properly just twice the length of a short syllable, and all the feet of a verse are of exactly equal length; but:—
- a. A long syllable is sometimes lengthened so as to be equivalent to three or even to four short ones, and is then denoted by the signs \bot and \sqcup respectively.
- b. A rest of the length of one or of two short syllables sometimes occurs at the end of a foot. These rests are denoted by the signs Λ and $\overline{\Lambda}$ respectively.

THE DIFFERENT METRES.

Dactylic Metres.

- 614. (1.) The DACTYLIC HEXAMETER * consists of six dactyls, of which the last is incomplete.
- (2.) For any of the first four feet spondees may be substituted. A spondee rarely occurs as the fifth foot also, and the verse is then called a *spondaic* verse.

NOTE. The principal caesura (marked thus ||) is most commonly after the thesis of the third foot (penthēmimeris); often, however, after the thesis of the fourth foot, and then there is usually a lesser caesura in the second foot. In many lines, however, the principal caesura is in the arsis of the third foot (feminine caesura). A bucolic diaeresis frequently occurs in pastoral poetry like Virgil's Eclogues and Georgics.

* Often called the Heroic Verse.

The scheme of the metre is therefore as follows:—

15 15 1 5 15 15 15 ±5*

or musically

Thus: —

At tuba | terribi|lem soni|tum || procul | aere ca|nōrō.

(Verg., Ae., ix., 503.)

Inton|sī crī|nēs | lon|gā cer|vīce flu|ēbant.

(Tibull., iii., 4, 27.)

Lūdere | quae vel|lem || cala|mō per|mīsit a|grestī.

(Verg., Ec., i., 10.)

Non medi | ā dē | gente | | Phry | gum exē | disse ne | fandīs.

(Verg., Ae., v., 785.)

Cf. in English: -

Meanwhile, apart, at the head of the hall, the priest and the herdsman

Sat, conversing together of past and present and future;
While Evangeline stood like one entranced, for within her
Olden memories rose, and loud in the midst of the music
Heard she the sound of the sea, and an irrepressible sadness
Came o'er her heart, and unseen she stole forth into the garden.

(Longfellow's Evangeline.)

NOTE. A light and rapid movement is produced by the frequent recurrence of dactyls; a slow and heavy one by that of spondees; as:—

Quadrupe|dante | pu|trem soni|tū || quatit | ūngula | campum.

(Verg., Ac., viii., 596.)

Illī in|ter sē|sē|| mā|gnā vī | bracchia | tollunt.

(Verg., Ae., viii., 452.)

- . 615. The ELEGIAC stanza consists of a dactylic hexameter alternating with a verse consisting of two half hexameters each of which has its last foot incomplete (i. e., one long syllable).
 - a. Of the half verses only the first admits a spondee instead
 - * The last foot is strictly 4 . A.

of a dactyl, and both must end with the end of a word. The scheme is therefore as follows:—

and musically the half verses are represented thus: -

Thus: -

Flēbilis | indī|gnōs || Ele|gēia | solve ca|pillōs Āh nimis | ex vē|rō || nunc tibi | nōmen e|rit.

(Ov., Am., iii., 9, 3.)

Cf. in English: -

Lo! in a land that is new, a new-born Salamis waits you. Hearts that often ere now perils have brav'd at my side

Graver by far, — I pledge you. To-night be merry. To-morrow

Speed once more our barks over the measureless sea.

(S. H. Hodgson: Trans. of Hor., Od., i., 7.)

Other dactylic verses are rare. The following occur in strophes:—

616. The Alcmanian strophe consists of a dactylic hexameter alternating with a dactylic tetrameter. The scheme is:—

Thus:—

Ambigu|am tel|lūre no|vā || Sala|mīna fu|tūram.

O for tēs pē i oraque | passī

Mēcum | saepe vi|rī, || nunc | vīnō | pellite | cūrās; Crās in|gēns ite|rābimus | aequor.

(Hor., Od., i., 7; the original of the selection under 615.)

617. The FIRST ARCHILOCHIAN STROPHE consists of a dactylic hexameter alternating with a dactylic penthemimeris (two feet and a half). The scheme is:—

Thus: —

Frīgora | mītē|scunt || Zephy|rīs, vēr | prōterit | aetās
Interi|tūra, si|mul
Pōmifer | autum|nus || frū|gēs ef|fūderit, | et mox
Brūma re|currit in|ers. (Hor., Od., iv., 7.)

Trochaic and Iambic Metres.

- 618. The longer trochaic and iambic measures belong chiefly to dramatic poetry. For their understanding the following preliminary points are necessary:—
- (1.) When a spondee is substituted for a trochee or an iambus, it loses a portion of its full time, and is called an IRRATIONAL SPONDEE.* This is represented by the sign -> (or musically \(\bigcup \)) when it stands for a trochee, and by the sign > when it stands for an iambus.
- (2.) When a long syllable in a foot is exchanged for two short syllables, the foot is said to be *resolved*, and the resulting foot is called a *resolution* of the other foot. Thus, a tribrach $(\smile \smile)$ is the resolution of a trochee or an iambus. A spondee $(_-)$ may be resolved into a dactyl $(_-\smile)$ or an anapaest $(\smile \smile -)$, and these last into a proceleusmatic $(\smile \smile \smile)$.
- (3.) All of the above feet may, therefore, occur in trochaic and iambic measures. When they are used in trochaic verse they have the ictus on their first syllable; when used in iambic verse, the spondee, dactyl, and tribrach have the ictus on the second syllable, the anapaest and the (rare) proceleusmatic on the third.
- (4.) A verse may have an introductory syllable or two, like the introductory notes before the first full bar in music. These introductory syllables are called ANACRUSIS.

Trophaic Metres.

- 619. The most common trochaic measures are the SEP-TENARIUS (tetrameter catalectic), and the OCTONARIUS (tetrameter acatalectic).
 - * Sometimes also an irrational trochee, or irrational iambus, respectively.



- a. In each of these, as used by the early dramatic poets, any complete foot may be resolved into a tribrach, and for any complete foot but the last the spondee and its resolutions may be substituted.* These irregularities are, however, most freely used in the first and fifth feet. In the late drama the substitutions are confined to the second foot of each dipody. An anapaest is not used immediately after a dactyl.
- b. The commonest pause is a diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot, and in that case the fourth foot must not be a dactyl. Otherwise a break almost invariably occurs at the end of the fifth foot, generally with a lesser break in the fourth or after the third.

NOTE. The ictus on the second foot of each dipody is less strong than that on the first foot, and is left unmarked in the scheme of the metres.

620. The possibilities of the septenarius may be represented by the following scheme:—

rereirereirereirerai

Thus: —

Nūpti|ās do|mī \hat{a} d pa|rārī || mīssast | ancil|la \hat{b} ili|cō. (Ter., An., 514.)

Ī sā|nē: egŏ tē ex|ercē|bō hodiē, ut | dīgnus | es, sili|cerni|um, Aeschi|nus odi|ōsē | cēssat; | prandi|um cor|rumpi|tur; Ctēsi|phō autem in a|mōre | tōtus: || ego iam | prōspici|am mi|hť.

(Ter., Ad., lines 587-589.)

Cf. in English: -

Then the dreary shadows scattered, like a cloud in morning's breeze,

And a low deep voice within me seemed whispering words like these. (Whittier's Cassandra Southwick.)

* But the proceleusmatic is very rare in Plautus and not found in Terence.

621. The possibilities of the octonarius may be represented by the following scheme:—

or musically -

r or olf or olf or olf or ol

Thus: -

Cēnse|ō. Sed | heus tū. | Quid vīs? | Cēnsēn | posse | mēĵoffīr-| māre. (Ter., Enn., 217.)

Obse|crō popu|lārēs,|ferte||miserō at|que inno|centa au|xilium:
Subve|nīte ino|pī : Ōti|ōsē; || nunci|am īli|cō hīc cōn|siste,
Quid re|spectās? | nīl pe|rīclīst: || numquam, | dum ego ade|
rō, hīc tē|tanget. (Ter., Ad., lines 155-157.)

Cf. in English: -

Beams of noon, like burning lances, through the tree tops flash and glisten,

As she stands before her lover, with raised face to look and listen. (Whittier's Slaves of Martinique.)

622. A TROCHAIC DIMETER (catalectic) (3 1-2 feet) occurs in the later tragedy (used strophically). The second foot may be a spondee or dactyl. Thus:—

Lēnis | āc modi | cē flu|ēns Aura | nec'ver|gēns la|tus. (Sen., Oed., line 887.)

NOTE. This measure also enters into the formation of the HIPPONAC-TEAN strophe. (See 650.) Other trochaic verses are occasionally found, chiefly as portions only of lines.

Iambic Metres.

623. The IAMBIC TRIMETER (sēnārius) is the most common of all dramatic measures, but the SEPTENARIUS

(tetrameter catalectic) and OCTONARIUS (tetrameter acatalectic) are also frequently used.

- a. Speaking generally, the same substitutions and resolutions occur as with the trochaic measures, in any foot except the last among the comic writers, confined mostly to the first foot of each dipody in other kinds of poetry. The proceleusmatic occurs chiefly in the first foot, and then the third syllable (ictus syllable) must begin a word, and the ictus and word accent must coincide. An anapaest immediately after a dactyl is avoided.
- 624. The SENARIUS consists of six iambic feet. The regular caesura is after the first syllable of the third foot (penthemimeral). Otherwise, after the arsis of the fourth foot there is almost always a caesura, often with a diaeresis after the second foot.

The scheme is as follows: —

Thus: -

Phase | lus il | le | | quem | vide | tis ho | spites. (Catull., 4, 1.)

Storax. Non redi it || hāc | nocte a | cēnā Ae|schinus Neque ser |volo|rum || quis |quam, quī ad |vorsum || |erant. Profec |to hīc vē | rē dī |cunt : || sī ab|sīs ūs |piam.

(Ter., Ad., lines 26-28.)

Cf. in English: -

O light immortal, winds on wings of swiftness borne,

O river sources, and the countless flashing smile

Of ocean's wavelets, universal mother earth.

(L. Dyer, Trans. of Aesch., Prom., 88 ff.)

625. The SEPTENARIUS consists of seven and a half iambic feet. The regular break is after the fourth foot, and this foot must then be a real iambus. If this break

does not occur, there is always a break after the arsis of the fifth foot.

The scheme is as follows: --

Thus: ---

Salū|tant, ad | cēnam | vocant, | adven|tum grā|tulan|tur. (Ter., Eun., 259.)

Sed quid hoc | est? vide|on ego | Getam || curren|tem_huc adveni|re?

Is est i|psus, ei, | timeō | miser, || quam htcîmihi | nunc nūn|tiet rem. (Ter., Phorm., lines 177, 178.)

Cf. in English * --

In Scarlet towne, where I was borne,
There was a faire maid dwellin,
Made every youth crye "Wel-awaye!"
Her name was Barbara Allen. (Percy's Reliques.)

626. The OCTONARIUS consists of eight iambic feet. When the break after the fourth foot occurs without elision, this foot must be a real iambus, as in the septenarius.

The scheme is as follows: —

Thus: -

Domum | modo jī | bō, jut ad | parē | tur | | dī | cam, jatque jhūc | renūn | tiō. (Ter., An., 594.)

Abs quī|vīs homi|ne, quomst | opus, || benefici|um_accipe|re gau|deās;

Vērum enim | vēro id dēmum | i uvat, | sī quem ae quomst face re is bene facit. (Ter., Ad., lines 254, 255.)

^{*} Written as two lines.

Cf. in English: * —

On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow;
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Iser, rolling rapidly.
(Campbell.)

NOTE. Iambic measures are sometimes regarded as trochaic measures with anacrusis, and may then be expressed musically as follows:—

Senarius: --

Septenarius: -

Octonarius: -

627. The pure IAMBIC TRIMETER (i. e., without any resolutions or substitutions) is first found in Catullus. Thus:—

Phasē|lus il|le, || quem | vidē|tis, ho|spitēs Ait | fuis|se || nā|vium | celer|rimus. (Catull., 4.)

628. The CHOLIAMBIC † measure is an iambic trimeter with a trochee for the last foot. Thus:—

as: ---

Miser | Catul|le || dē|sinās | inep|tīre

Et quod | vidēs | perīs | se | | per | ditum | dūcās. (Catull., 8.)

a. The choliambic may also be represented metrically thus: —

* Written as two lines.

† I. e., lame iambic. It is also called SCAZON (hobbling).

629. The IAMBIC DIMETER (catalectic) is found in the later tragedies. It is also called the *Anacreontic*, and is used strophically. Thus:—

Ut ti|gris or|ba gnā|tīs. (Sen., Med., 863.)

Note. Other iambic measures occasionally occur, chiefly as parts of strophes or as single lines, especially the dimeter acatalectic (quaternārius) and trimeter catalectic. See 650 ff.

Anapaestic, Bacchiac, and Cretic Metres.

Anapaestic, bacchiac, and cretic measures are mostly confined to the early comedy writers (especially Plautus) and the later tragic poets. The common forms are as follows:—

Anapaestic Metres.

- 630. In anapaestic verse a spondee, a dactyl, or a proceleusmatic may be substituted for an anapaest. There is a regular break after the fourth foot in the septenarius and octonarius.
 - (1.) Septenarius.

Quid ais? | viro mē | malo male | nūptam. || Satin au | dīs quae jil- | līc loqui | tur ?

Satis. Sī | sapiam, hinc | intro abe am, ubi mihi | bene sit. Mane: male e rit poti us. (Plaut., Menaech., 602, 603.)

Cf. in English: *-

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As his corse to the rampart we hurried;
Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

(Wolfe's Burial of Sir John Moore.)

(2.) Octonarius.

Mille mo|dīs amor | īgnō|randust, || procul abhi|bendust | atque@ap|standust;

Nam qui în a morem | praecipi tāvit, || pēius pe rit quasi | saxō | saliat. (Plaut., Trin., lines 264, 265.)

* Written in two lines.

Cf. in English: # --

The mistletoe hung in the castle hall, And the holly branch shone on the old oak wall: The baron's retainers were blithe and gay, Keeping their Christmas holiday.

(See Wadham's Versification, p. 65.)

(3.) Dimeter acatalectic (quaternārius).

Haec ego | quom cum^ani|mō meō | reputō Ubi qui e get, quam | preti sit | parvī Apage, amor, | tē, non | places: nīl | tē utor. (Plaut., Trin., lines 256-258.)

Cf. in English: * -

'T is the last rose of summer Left blooming alone; All her lovely companions Are faded and gone.

(T. Moore.)

(4.) Dimeter catalectic (paroemiac).

Quam hic rem | gerat ani | mum advor tam.

(Plaut., Trin., line 843.)

Other varieties also occur, as the trimeter catalectic and the This last, like the paroemiac, is used mostly as the last line of a series of longer anapaestic verses.

Bacchiac and Cretic Metres.

- 631. i. In bacchiac and cretic measures either (but not both) of the long syllables may be resolved, or a molossus (---) may be substituted.
- ii. The TETRAMETER is the most usual variety in each A break is most common after the of these measures. second foot. Thus: —
 - (1.) Bacchiac tetrameter. [Ictus 🗸 🗕]

Adcūrā | tē agātur, | doctē et dī | ligenter, Tanta incep ta res est : | haud somni culose hoc

* Written in two lines.

Agendumst. || Erō_ut me | volēs es |se. Spērō,

Nam tū nunc | vidēs prō | tuō cā |rō capite

Carum_offer |re mē meum | caput vī | litātī.

(Plaut., Capt., lines 226-230.)

(2.) Cretic tetrameter. [Ictus 40-]

Cōpiāst, | atque_eā || facitis nōs | conpotēs,
Sēcēde_hūc | nunciam, || sī vidē|tur, procul,
Nē_arbitrī | dicta no||stra_arbitrā|rī queant
Neu permā|net palam_haec || nostra fal|lācia.
(Plaut., Capt., lines 217-220.)

a. The last foot is often incomplete (tetrameter catalectic); as: —

Meō modōĵet | mōribus | vīvitōĵan|tīquīs. (Plaut., Trin., line 295.)

NOTE. In comedy the iambic senarius is used for the scenes of spoken dialogue; the iambic septenarius and octonarius and the trochaic septenarius are used in more or less long passages, which were delivered as recitative with musical accompaniment. The trochaic octonarius, the anapaestic, bacchiac, cretic, and the shorter trochaic and iambic measures are used for strophic groups of lines (called CANTICA) which were regularly sung to music.

Choriambic and Ionic Metres.

632. The CHORIAMBIC TETRAMETER is occasionally found. [Ictus 2 0 0 2] Thus:—

Omne nemus | cum fluviīs | omne canat | profundum.

(Claud., Nupt. Hon., ii., 4.)

Note. Many of the logacedic measures (see 643) are sometimes scanned as choriambic.

633. The LESSER IONIC verse is found in one ode of Horace. [Ictus Juliana A strophe consists of ten feet. Thus:—

Miserārum est | neque amōrī | dare lūdum | neque dulcī Mala vīnō aut | lavere aut ex|animārī Metuentēs | patruae ver|bera linguae. (Hor., Od., iii., 12.)

- 634. The GREATER IONIC (Sotadean) was used by Ennius, Martial, and others. [Ictus 2 _ _ _]
- a. The early poets use double trochees and other equivalent feet instead of the Ionic, and resolve a long syllable of the Ionic freely, but Martial and the later poets confine themselves chiefly to one resolution in a verse, and use only the double trochee as a substitution. Thus:—

Nam quam varia | sint genera po | ēmatōrum, | Balbī, Quamque longē | distīncta ali | a ab aliīs sīs, | nōsce. (Acc., Didasc.)

Hās, cum gemi|nā compede, | dēdicat ca|tēnās, Sāturne, ti|bī Zoilus, | ānulōs pri|ōrēs. (Martial.)

PECULIARITIES OF EARLY VERSIFICATION.

Besides the feeble force of s in early prosody (see 609, 1, d), the following points should be noted:—

- 635. The originally long quantity of certain final syllables, which afterwards became short, was sometimes retained. So
 - (1.) -es (gen. -itis); as, superstēs.
 - (2.) -or (gen. - \bar{o} ris); as, $sor\bar{o}r$.
- (3.) Verb endings in -r, -s, -t; as, regrediōr, augeāt, fuerīs, monuīt.
 - a. These irregularities occur chiefly in Plautus.

NOTE. The final a of the feminine singular in nouns and adjectives of the first declension has also often been measured long in early Latin verse; as, $epistul\bar{a}$, $bon\bar{a}$; but many of the best authorities now deny this quantity.

- 636. Words of two syllables, with the first syllable short, often shorten a long final vowel; as, novo; levi; iubě.*
- a. This shortening is particularly common before a syllable which has the verse accent; as, dar's mt.
- * This is due to the influence of the word-accent. It is much easier after a short accented syllable to pronounce a final vowel short than long.

- 637. Other long syllables are not infrequently shortmend when they stand after a short syllable * and before a syllable which has the verse accent; as, negăt Phā'nium; vel ŏcciditō; senĕctū'tem.
 - 638. Also after a short monosyllable which has the verse accent, a syllable may be shortened. Thus: séd id quod; quid istūc; ád ipsam.
 - a. So, too, the second syllable of a word of several syllables, if the first is short and has the verse accent; as, $v \delta l \bar{u} n t \bar{a} t e$.
 - 639. Monosyllables ending in a long vowel (or -m) are often employed before a vowel as the thesis of a foot, being shortened instead of elided. Thus: qui aget; no aqūs; quam ego.
 - 640. Vowels which ordinarily make a syllable of their own are often run together with a following vowel (even though h intervene), thus making one syllable of two. This is called SYNIZESIS or SYNAERESIS. Thus: antehac, - 641. Doubled consonants were not regularly written (or sounded) in the time of Plautus, and thus words like ille, immō, quippe, are used by him with the first syllable short.
 - a. Ennius first wrote doubled consonants regularly; and his contemporary Terence rarely neglects their effect upon the quantity of a syllable; when he does so, it is almost always at the beginning of an iambic verse.
 - b. Before the combination, mute and liquid, short vowels always retain their natural (short) quantity in Plautus and Terence; as, săcrī, inpětrō.
 - * Whether in the same word or not. In words of more than two syllables, however, only the first two syllables seem to suffer this shortening.

Saturnian Verse.

Note. The earliest Latin verse was not, like the verses already treated, an imitation of the Greek, but a product of Italian soil. It is called Saturnian verse. Scholars are not agreed as to certain important points in its character, but it is generally admitted that the accent (ictus) has much more prominence as compared with quantity than in the Greek metres.

642. SATURNIAN verse consists of two half verses with a break between them, on the following scheme (iambic dimeter catalectic + trochaic tripody):—

Thus: -

Dabunt | malum | Metel|lī | Naevi|o po ētae.

Cornēļlius | Lūcī|us || Scīpi|ō Bar|bātus Gnaevōd | patre | prōgnā|tus || fortis | vir sapi|ēnsque Quōius | formā | virtū|tei || parisu|mā|fuit.

Cf. in English: -

The king was in the parlor, counting out his money; The queen was in the kitchen, eating bread and honey.

a. It is perhaps best to consider the last syllable of each half verse an accented one.* Thus:—

NOTE 1. The Saturnian is found chiefly in inscriptions. *Hiātus* is allowed between the two halves of the verse. The unaccented parts (arses) of the verse consist of a long syllable or a short syllable or two short syllables. Sometimes an arsis disappears, as in the last foot but one in the last line above. The accented parts (theses) must be either one long syllable or two short syllables. Alliteration is common.

NOTE 2. Another view now frequently held is that of O. Keller, that "quantity" has nothing to do with the metre, and that the accent coin-

^{*} See Westphal, Gr. Metrik, ii., 42, and R. Klotz, Jahresber. 1883, p. 323.

cides always with the word-accent. Each half verse always begins then with an accent.* Thus: —

Dábunt málum Metélli || Naéviö poétae.

Between the second accented syllable and the third, two unaccented syllables always occur; in other cases generally only one unaccented syllable. There are always three accented syllables in the first half verse, generally three in the second; sometimes, however, only two in the second, and then usually an unaccented syllable before that half verse (anacrūsis). The arsis even of the last foot occasionally consists of two syllables.

Logacedic Verse.

- 643. Logaoedic verse is a name given to a kind of verse consisting of dactyls and trochees (chiefly irrational), from the resemblance to prose caused by slight inequalities in the time of the feet (from $\lambda \acute{o}_{YOS}$ and $\mathring{a}oi \acute{o}\acute{\eta}$, prose-song).
- 644. Logacedic lines consist almost always of one dactyl and two, three, or four trochees. The dactyl occupies any foot but the last.† Thus:—

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Logacedic Dipody

Logacedic Tripody

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- a. These lines are used, either as complete in themselves or combined into longer lines, to make various forms of (chiefly strophic) verse, as in the following sections.
 - * See O. Keller, Der Saturnische Vers als rhythmisch erwiesen.
- † One logacedic tetrapody occurs with two dactyls, the lesser Alcaic, thus:

Metres of Horace and Catalina.

- 645. The ASCLEPIADEAN verse is used in five varieties, as follows:—
- (1.) Lesser (or 1st) Asclepiadean (2d Pherecratic + 1st Pherecratic). [Not strophic.] Thus:—

Maecē nās ata vīs | ēdite | rēgi|bus. (Hor., Od., i., 1.) Horace, Odes, i., 1; iii., 30; iv., 8.

NOTE. It will be seen that the last foot of the first half of the line consists of one long syllable protracted into the time of three short ones (cf. 613, a), and that the last foot in the line contains a rest. Similar phenomena of course occur in the other logacedic verses given below.

(2.) SECOND ASCLEPIADEAN (three lesser Asclepiadean lines followed by a second Glyconic). [Strophic.] Thus:—

Scrībē|ris Vari|ō || fortis et | hosti|um Victor, | Maeoni|ī || carminis | āli|tī, Quam rem | cumque fe|rōx || nāvibus | aut e|ques Mīles | tē duce | gesse|rit.

Horace, Odes, i., 6, 15, 24, 33; ii., 12; iii., 10, 16; iv., 5, 12.

(3.) THIRD ASCLEPIADEAN (second Glyconic alternating with a lesser Asclepiadean). [Strophic.] Thus:—

Sīc tē | dīva po|tēns Cy|prī Sīc frā|trēs Hele|nae, || lūcida | sīde|ra,

Ventō|rumque re|gat pa|ter Obstrīc|tīs ali|īs || praeter I|āpy|ga.

Horace, Odes, i., 3, 13, 19, 36; iii., 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; iv., 1, 3.

(4.) FOURTH ASCLEPIADEAN (first two lines lesser Asclepiadean, third line 2d Pherecratic, fourth line 2d Glyconic). [Strophic.] Thus:—

The last two lines are, musically:

Quis mul|tā graci|lis || tē puer | in ro|sā Perfū|sus liqui|dīs || urget o|dōri|bus Grātō, |Pyrrha, sub | an|trō ? Cui flā|vam reli|gās co|mam.

Horace, Odes, i., 5, 14, 21, 23; iii., 7, 13; iv., 13.

(5.) Greater (or 5th) Asclepiadean (2d Pherecratic + Adonic + 1st Pherecratic). [Not strophic.] Thus:—

Tū nē | quaesie | ris, || scīre ne | fās, || quem mihi, | quem ti | bī. Horace, Odes, i., 11, 18; iv., 10; Catullus, 30.

- 646. The SAPPHIC strophe is used in two varieties, as follows:—
- (1.) Lesser Sapphic (first three lines lesser Sapphic, fourth line Adonic). Thus: —

NOTE. There is usually a caesura after the long syllable of the dactyl.

Iam sa|tis ter|rīs || nivis | atque | dīrae Grandi|nis mī|sit || pater | et ru|bente Dexte|rā sa|crās || iacu|lātus | arcēs Terruit| urbem.

Cf. in English: -

All the night sleep came not upon my eyelids, Shed not dew, nor shook nor unclosed a feather, Yet with lips shut close and with eyes of iron Stood and beheld me.

(Swinburne's Sapphics.)

Horace, Odes, i., 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; ii., 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; iii., 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; iv., 2, 6, 11; and the Carm. Saec.; Catullus, 11, 51.

NOTE 1. Catullus, in the only two poems which he wrote in the Sapphie metre, differs from Horace in occasionally using a real trochee in the second foot, and in sometimes neglecting the caesura, or putting it between the short syllables of the dactyl.

NOTE 2. The last two lines are occasionally run together by both Horace and Catullus; as: —

Lābi|tur rīpā || Iove | non pro|bante_uxorius | amnis. (Hor., Od., i., 2, lines 19-20.)

NOTE 3. The Sapplic line is sometimes divided as follows: -

(2.) GREATER SAPPHIC (1st Pherecratic [Aristophanic] alternating with a greater Sapphic line (i. e., 3d Glyconic + 1st Pherecratic). Thus:—

Lydia | dīc per | om|nēs
Tē de|ōs ō|rō Syba|rin || cūr prope|rēs a|man|dō.

Horace, Odes, i. 8.

647. The Alcaic strophe * consists of two greater Alcaic lines (i. e., lesser Sapphic lines, catalectic with anacrusis), a trochaic dimeter with anacrusis, and a lesser Alcaic. Thus:—

Viidēs ut | altā | stet nive | candi|dum Sōiracte, | nec iam | sūstine|ant o|nus Silivae la|bōran|tēs, ge|lūque Flūmina | cōnstite|rint a|cūtō.

Cf. in English: -

O mighty-mouth'd inventor of harmonies,

O skill'd to sing of Time or Eternity, God-gifted organ-voice of England,

Milton, a name to resound for ages.

(Tennyson's Ode to Milton.)

Horace, Odes, i., 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; ii., 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; iii., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; iv., 4, 9, 14, 15.

- 648. The GLYCONIC-PHERECRATIC verse is used in two forms by Catullus, as follows:—
- (1.) A strophic form (consisting of three, or four, 2d Glyconic verses and one 2d Pherecratic). Thus:—

^{*} Also called the HORATIAN stanza, because Horace uses it more than any of the other logacedic verses.

Dia|nae sumus | in fi|dē Puel_|lae_et pue|ri_inte|grī: Dia|nam pue|ri_inte|grī Puel|laeque ca|nā|mus.

(Catull., 34.)

Nil po|test sine | tē Ve|nus,
Fāma | quod bona | compro|bet,
Commo|dī cape|re@at po|test
Tē vo|lente. Quis | huic de|ō
Compa|rārier | au|sit?

(Catull., 61.)

Catullus, 34, 61.

Note. The first foot is usually a trochee, but sometimes a spondee, or even (as in the first strophe above) an iambus. Cf. Greek usage. One verse (61,25) has a spondee instead of the dactyl.

(2.) A form not strophic, called the PRIAPEAN verse, in which the Glyconic and Pherecratic make together a single line. Thus:—

10 40 10 K | 10 40 K BA

O Co|lonia, | quae cu|pis || ponte | ludere | lon|go.

Catullus, 17.

649. The Phalaecian verse (hendecasyllable) is a logacedic pentapody with dactyl in the second place. Thus:—

1> 400 10 10 10

Cui dō|nō lepi|dum no|vum li|bellum.

Cf. in English:

Look, I come to the test, a tiny poem All composed in a metre of Catullus.

(Tennyson's Hendecasyllabics.)

Catullus, 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 21, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 32, 33, 35, 36, 38, 40, 41, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 58b.

Note. The first foot is occasionally a real trochee, or even an iambus.

Other kinds of verse (not logacedic) are used by Horace or Catullus as follows:—

Strophic Metres.

650. The HIPPONACTEAN strophe consists of a trochaic dimeter catalectic alternating with an iambic trimeter catalectic. Thus:—

Horace, Odes, ii., 18.

651. The PYTHIAMBIC strophe consists of a dactylic hexameter alternating with an iambic dimeter acatalectic. Thus:—

Mollis in|ertia | cūr || tān|tam dif|fūderit | īmīs Oblī|viō|nem sēn|sibus.

Horace, Ep., 14, 15.

652. The 2D PYTHIAMBIC strophe consists of a dactylic hexameter alternating with a pure iambic trimeter (acatalectic). Thus:—

Altera | iam teri|tur || bel|līs cī|vīlibus | aetās, Suīs | et i|psa || Rō|ma vī|ribus | ruit.

Horace, Ep., 16.

653. The IAMBIC strophe consists of an iambic trimeter alternating with an iambic dimeter. Thus:—

lbīs | Lībur|nīs || in|ter al|ta nā|vium, Amī|ce, prō|pūgnā|cula.

Horace, Ep., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10.



- 654. The Archilochian strophe occurs in four forms, as follows:—
 - (1.) 1st Archilochian (see 617).

Horace, Odes, iv., 7.

(2.) 2D Archilochian (consisting of a dactylic hexameter alternating with a so-called iambelic line [i. e., an iambic dimeter + a dactylic penthemimeris]). Thus:—

Horrida | tempe stās | cae lum con trāxit, et | imbrēs Nivēs que dē dūcunt | Iovem ; | nunc mare, | nunc silu|ae.

Horace, Ep., 13.

(3.) 3D ARCHILOCHIAN (consisting of an iambic trimeter and a so-called elegiambic line [i. e., a dactylic penthemimeris + an iambic dimeter]). Thus:—

Pettī, | nihil | mē | sīc|ut an | teā | iuvat Scrībere | versicu | lōs || amō | re per | cursum | gravī.

Horace, Ep., 11.

(4.) 4TH ARCHILOCHIAN (consisting of a greater Archilochian [i. e., a dactylic tetrameter + a trochaic tripody] alternating with an iambic trimeter catalectic). Thus:—

Solvitur | ācris hi|ems || grā|tā vice | vēris | et Fa|vōnī, Trahunt|que sic|cās || mā|chinae | carī|nās.

Horace, Odes, i., 4.

655. ALCMANIAN strophe. (See 616.)

Horace, Odes, i., 7, 28; Ep., 12.

656. Lesser Ionic strophe [Ionic ā minōre]. (See 633.)

Horace, Odes, iii., 12.

Metres Not Strophic.

657. The Galliambic metre is a lesser Ionic tetrameter, employed by Catullus with various irregularities. The scheme is as follows:—

Super alta | vectus Attis | celeri ra te maria.

Catullus, 63.

NOTE 2. For the (apparent) pyrrhic thus resulting at the beginning of each half of the verse may be substituted a spondee or a proceleusmatic; for the first pyrrhic, also a tribrach.

NOTE 3. The variation of the ictus from the ordinary ictus of the lesser Ionic foot should be observed, as given in the scheme above.

658. The following measures, already treated, are also used: —

(1.) Pure lambic trimeter. (See 627.)

Horace, Ep., 17; Catullus, 4, 29, 52.*

(2.) CHOLIAMBIC. (See 628.)

Catullus, 8, 22, 31, 37, 39, 44, 59, 60.

- (3.) IAMBIC SEPTENARIUS. (See 625.) Catullus, 25.
- (4.) DACTYLIC HEXAMETER. (See 614.)

Horace, Satires and Epistles; Catullus, 62, 64.

(5.) ELEGIAC. (See 615.)

Catullus, 65, 66, 67, 68, and 69-116.

NOTE. The spondee may be used instead of an iambus in the metres treated in 650-658 only in the first and third feet, as a rule. In the iambic strophe, the 3d Archilochian, and the choliambic, resolution is occasionally employed. The trochaic lines or part lines admit no substitutions or resolutions. The iambic alternate line in the second Pythiambic strophe is also a pure line (i. e., has only the iambus).

* This quatrain, however, has spondees in the first and third feet of two of the lines.

APPENDIX.

GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

NOTE. Most of the technical terms used to name the so-called FIGURES OF SPEECH have now gone out of use,* but the following are still met with often enough to make it worth while to define them briefly.

- 659. (1.) Alliteration is the repetition of words or syllables beginning with the same letter (or sound); as:—
- \bar{O} Tite, $t\bar{u}$ te, $Tat\bar{i}$, $tib\bar{i}$ tanta, tyranne, $tulist\bar{i}$ (Ennius apud Cornif., Rhet., 4, 18).
- (2.) Amphibolia is the use of equivocal words or constructions: as:—

Gallus = "a Gaul" or "a cock;" $\bar{a}i\bar{o}$ tē, $Aeacid\bar{a}$, Rōmānōs vincere posse, I say that you, O son of Aeacus, the Romans can conquer (Enn., apud Cic., $D\bar{v}v$., ii., 56, 116).

(3.) Anacolūthon is a disagreement in construction between the latter and the earlier part of a sentence: as:—

Nam nos omnes, quibus est alicunde aliquis obiectus labos, omne quod est interea tempus, priusquam id rescitum est, lucro est, for [to] all of us upon whom some hardship is hurled from some quarter, the intervening time before we discover it is so much gain (Ter.).

The anacoluthon could be avoided by using either nos omnes... lucro habemus, or nobis omnibus... lucro est.

(4.) Anaphora is the repetition of a word or of corresponding words, in the same order in successive clauses or sentences; as:—

Nihilne tē nocturnum praesidium palātī, nihil urbis vigiliae, nihil timor populī . . . mōvērunt? have the guarding of

* A few have become so common as applied to English also that they need no special mention.

the Palatine by night, the patrol of the city, the fear of the people, produced no effect upon you? (Cic., in Cat., i.) Cf. also 598, 1.

(5.) Antithesis is the placing of different words or sentiments in contrast; as:—

Caesar beneficiīs āc mūnificentiā māgnus habēbātur; integritāte vītae Catō, Caesar was thought great for his favors and generosity, Cato for the purity of his life (Sall., Cat., 54, 2). Cf. also 598.

- (6.) APOCOPE is the omission of a letter or syllable at the end of a word; as, $m\bar{e}n'$ for $m\bar{e}ne$. Cf. also 63, ii.
- (7.) APOSTROPHE is the turning off from the course of the subject, to address some absent person or personified thing; as:—

Quid non mortalia pectora cogis, auri sacra fames? what dost thou not drive the heart of man to do, accursed hunger for gold? (Verg., Ae., iii., 56).

+(8.) ASYNDETON is the omission of the connective between words or sentences; as:—

Abiit, excessit, evasit, erupit (Cic., Cat., ii., 1, 1).

- (9.) BARBARISM is the use of a foreign word, or a violation of spelling or the rules of word-formation or metre in the use of a word; as, rigōrōsus for rigidus.
- (10.) Chiasmus is the placing of corresponding words in opposite orders in successive clauses or sentences. See the example under Antithesis above, and cf. also 598, 2.
- (11.) Crass is the contraction of two vowels into one; as, $c\bar{o}g\bar{o}$ for $co-ag\bar{o}$; $n\bar{\imath}l$ for nihil.
- (12.) Ellipsis is the omission of a word or words in a sentence; as, quid multa? (sc. dicam); ad Džānae (sc. aedem).
- (13.) EPANALEPSIS is a return to the subject by the repetition of a word or sentence after interrupting words or clauses. (See Verg., Geōrg., ii., lines 4-7.)
- (14.) HENDIADYS is the expression of an idea by two connected nouns instead of a noun modified by an adjective or a genitive; as:—

Paterīs $l\bar{\imath}b\bar{u}mus$ et aurō (for paterīs aureīs), we pour a libation from golden bowls (Verg., $Ge\bar{o}r$., ii., 192).

(15.) Hypallage is an interchange of constructions; as: -

In nova fert animus mūtātās dīcere formās corpora (for corpora mūtāta in novās formās), my mind leads me to tell of bodies changed into new shapes (Ovid, M., i., 1).

(16.) HYPERBATON is the displacement of a word from its connection in a clause or sentence; as:—

Ut $\bar{n}lla\ interm\bar{\imath}ssi\bar{o}\ fiat\ offici\ (instead\ of\ ut\ \bar{u}lla\ interm\bar{\imath}ssi\bar{o}\ offici\ fiat)\ (Cic.,\ Am.,\ 2,\ 8).$

(17.) HYPERBOLE is the exaggeration or diminishing a thing beyond the truth; as:—

Ipse arduus altaque pulsat sīdera, towering he stands and strikes the stars on high (Verg., Ae., iii., 619).

(18.) HYSTERON PROTERON is a reversal of the natural order of the sense; as:—

Moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus, let us die and rush into the midst of the battle (Verg., Ae., ii., 353).

- (19.) Lītotēs is a mode of assertion by denying the contrary; as, $n\bar{o}n \ laud\bar{o} = I$ blame; $n\bar{o}n \ innoxia \ verba = harmful words.$
- (20.) METATHESIS is the transposition of letters in a word; as, cerno beside crētus. Cf. also 72.
- (21.) METONYMY is the substitution of the name of one thing for another to which it has a certain relation, as the cause for the effect, the sign for the thing signified, etc. Thus:—

Fr \bar{u} gēs Cererem appellāmus, v \bar{v} num autem Līberum, we call the crops Ceres and wine Bacchus (Cic., N. D., ii., 23, 60); $c\bar{e}dant$ arma togae, let arms yield to the toga [i. e., war to peace] (Cic., Poet. frag.).

(22.) OXYMŌRON is the union of words of contrary meanings in such a way as to produce a seeming contradiction; as:—

Concordia discors; cum tacent, clāmant.

(23.) PARONOMASIA is a play upon the similarity of sound between words; as:—

Amor et melle et felle est fēcundissimus (Plaut., Cist., i., 1, 70); cīvem bonārum artium, bonārum partium (Cic.).

- (24.) PERIPHRASIS is another name for circumlocution; as, tener \bar{i} $f\bar{e}t\bar{u}s$ ovium, tender offspring of sheep (for $\bar{a}gn\bar{i}$, lambs).
 - (25.) PLEONASM is the use of more words than are necessary to convey the meaning; as:—

Sīc ōre locūta est (Verg., Ae., i., 614).

(26.) Prolepsis is the anticipation of an idea before it appears; as:—

Fugācēs terrēre equēs, to frighten the horses so as to make them flee (cf. Hor., Od., ii., 1, 19).

(27.) Prosopopæïa is another name for personification; as:—

Virtūs intāminātīs fulget honōribus, true merit shines with unsullied honors (Hor., Od., iii., 2, 17).

- (28.) Solecism is a violation of the rules of syntax; as,— Venus pulcher (for pulchra); vos (for vobīs) invidēmus.
- (29.) Syncope is the omission of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, asprīs for asperīs. Cf. also 63, i.
- (30.) SYNECDOCHE is the use of the whole for a part, the genus for the species, the singular for the plural, the material for the thing made, or the opposites of these; as, tectum for domus; fontem for aquam.
- (31.) TAUTOLOGY is the repetition of an idea in different words: as:—

Iam $v\bar{o}s$ aciem et proelia et hostem $p\bar{o}scitis$, now you demand the battle line, the fight, the foe (Sil.).

- (32.) TMESIS is the separation of the parts of a word; as:—
 Septem subiecta triōnī $g\bar{e}ns$, a people dwelling in the far north (Verg., $Ge\bar{o}r$., iii., 381); quae $m\bar{e}$ cumque vocant terrae, whatever lands call me (Verg., Ae., i., 610).
- (33.) ZEUGMA is the use of a word in two or more expressions, when it is strictly applicable to only one of them; as:—

Pācem an bellum gerēns, waging peace or war? (gerere not being a word which strictly applies to $p\bar{a}x$); semperne in sanguine, ferrō, fugā versābimur?

MODES OF RECKONING.

TIME.

- 660. (1.) The Roman day was reckoned from sunrise to sunset, and this time was always divided into twelve hours $(\hbar \bar{o} rae)$. The night, reckoned from sunset to sunrise, was also divided into twelve hours. Therefore the hours were not of a fixed length, as with us, but varied with the season of the year. At the equinoxes they had, like our hours, a uniform length of sixty minutes each. Between the vernal and the autumnal equinox the hours of daylight were more than sixty minutes long; between the autumnal and the vernal equinox, less than sixty minutes.
- NOTE 1. In camp, the night was also divided into four watches (vigiliae) of three (Roman) hours each, the second ending at midnight and the fourth at sunrise.
- (2.) In early times the Roman year began with March, and the names Quinctilis (July), Sextilis (August), September, etc., indicated the distance of these months from the beginning of the year. The number of days in the year was 355, divided between the months as follows: March, May, July, and October, 31 each; February, 28; and the others, 29 each. Every other year the Pontifices might put in an extra month after the 23d of February.
- (3.) In 46 B. c. Julius Caesar reformed the calendar, putting it upon its present basis.* In leap-year, February 24th was counted twice. Hence the name Bissextile for leap-year (February 24th being the sixth day before the first of March). The names Quinctilis and Sextilis were afterwards changed to Jūlius and Augustus, in honor of Caesar and his grand-nephew.
- (4.) The Romans counted their days backwards from three fixed points in each month: the Calends † (Kalendae), i. e.,
- * Except for the slight change introduced by Pope Gregory XIII. in 1582 by which the closing year of a century (1700, 1800, 1900, etc.) is not counted as leap-year, unless its number is divisible by 400 (1600, 2000, etc.).
- † So called because the priests then announced the new-moon. (Cf. ca-lāre.)

the first of the month; the Ides* ($\bar{I}d\bar{u}s$), i. e., the 13th of most months, but the 15th of March, May, July, and October; and the Nones† ($N\bar{o}nae$), i. e., the 5th, except in March, May, July and October, when it is the 7th. Therefore:

- a. To reduce a Latin date to English terms:-
- i. If reckoned from the Calends, add two to the number of days in the preceding month, and subtract the given date.
- ii. Otherwise, add one to the day on which the Nones or Ides fall, and subtract the given date.

Thus: -

XV Kal. Quinct. =
$$30 + 2 - 15 = 17$$
th of June.
IV Non. Ian. = $5 + 1 - 4 = 2$ d of January.
VI Īdūs Māiās = $15 + 1 - 6 = 10$ th of May.

- b. To reduce an English date to Latin terms: -
- i. If later than the Ides of a given month, add two to the number of days in the month, and subtract the date.
- ii. Otherwise, add one to the day on which the Ides or Nones fall in the given month, and subtract the date.

Thus: -

April 3d =
$$5+1-3=111$$
 Non. April. Dec. $10th=13+1-10=1V$ Id. Dec. Aug. $22d=31+2-22=X1$ Kal. Sept.

- NOTE 1. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides is called $pridi\bar{e}$ Kalendās, $N\bar{o}n\bar{a}s$, or $\bar{I}d\bar{u}s$. The Romans in reckoning counted both the starting-point and the day arrived at; therefore they had no $di\bar{e}$ secundā Kalendās, etc., but the second day before the Calends was $di\bar{e}$ tertiā Kal., and similarly with regard to the Nones and Ides.
- NOTE 2. In leap-year the 24th of February was called dies bisextus, as the year was called annus bisextus. Sometimes both the 24th and 25th were called VI Kal. Mart.
- NOTE 3. Before the year 46 B. C. the number of days in the months of the old year should, strictly, be taken in transferring dates, not the number of days in our months; and that makes the problem much more complicated.
- (5.) The Romans indicated the year officially by the names of its consuls. The Roman authors, however, sometimes reckoned years from the founding of Rome (753 B. C.).‡
 - * The time of full moon.
 - † By Roman reckoning, the ninth day before the Ides.
 - † Indicated thus: A. U. C. (i. e., anno urbis conditae).

- a. To reduce a year thus reckoned to English terms: -
- i. If the number is less than 754, subtract it from 754, and the result gives the year B. C.
- ii. If greater than 753, subtract 753 from it, and the result is the corresponding year of our era.

Thus: -

A. U. C.
$$684 = 754 - 684 = 70$$
 B. C.
A. U. C. $767 = 767 - 753 = A$. D. 14.

- b. To reduce a date B. C. or A. D. to the equivalent A. U. C.
- i. If the year is B. c., subtract the number from 754.
- ii. If the year is A. D., add the number to 753.

Thus: -

105 B. c. =
$$754 - 105 = A$$
. U. c. 649.
A. D. $115 = 753 + 115 = A$. U. c. 868.

- (6.) The Romans divided the year into festival days or holidays $(di\bar{e}s\ f\bar{e}st\bar{\imath})$ and non-festival or working days $(di\bar{e}s\ pro-f\bar{e}st\bar{\imath})$. They also distinguished as $di\bar{e}s\ f\bar{a}st\bar{\imath}$ the days on which it was lawful to hold court, calling other days $di\bar{e}s\ nef\bar{a}st\bar{\imath}$.*
- NOTE 1. Besides various festivals celebrated upon special occasions, such as the $l\bar{u}d\bar{\iota}$ $m\bar{a}gn\bar{\iota}$ (great games) and the $l\bar{u}d\bar{\iota}$ saeculārēs (centennial games), the Romans had several stated festivals occurring at fixed times in the year. The most important are the following:—

Lupercālia, Feb. 15; Quirīnālia, Feb. 17; Quinquātrūs (Festival of Minerva), March 19-23; Lūdī Megalēnsēs (Megalēnsia), April 4-10; Parīlia or Palīlia, April 21; Lūdī Flōrālēs (Flōrālia), April 28-May 3; Lūdī Apollinārēs, July 6-13; Neptūnālia, July 23; Cōnsuālia, Aug. 21 and Dec. 15; Lūdī Rōmānī, Sept. 4-19; Lūdī Capitōlīnī, Oct. 15; Lūdī Plēbēī, Nov. 4-17; Sāturnālia, Dec. 17-23.

The anniversaries of the defeat at Lake Trasumennus (June 23) and the defeat by the Cimbri in 105 B. c. (Oct. 6) were known as dies ātrī (black days).

NOTE 2. In the late empire, when the division of the month into weeks was introduced at Rome, the days were named as follows:—

Sunday = diēs Sōlis; Monday = diēs Lūnae; Tuesday = diēs Mārtis; Wednesday = diēs Mercurii; Thursday = diēs Iovis; Friday = diēs Veneris; Saturday = diēs Sāturnī. Sunday is also called diēs dominica (i. e., the Lord's day).

* For a complete calendar of special days, see Preller's Römische Mythologie, pp. 797 ff.

THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

661. The following table shows the correspondence of our calendar with that of the Romans.

Days of our months.	MAR. MAI. Jul. Oct.	JAN. AUG. DEC.	APR. JUN. SEPT. Nov.	FEB.
1	Kalendæ.	Kalendæ.	Kalendæ.	Kalendæ.
$\frac{2}{3}$	VI Nonās.	IV Nonās.	IV Nonās.	IV Nonās.
3) v "	III "	III "	III "
4	IV "	Prīdiē "	Prīdiē "	Prīdiē "
5	III "	Nonæ.	Nonæ.	Nonæ.
6	Prīdiē "	VIII Idūs.	VIII Idūs.	VIII Īdūs.
7	Nonæ.	VII "	VII "	VII "
8	VIII Īdūs.	VI "	VI "	VI "
9	VII "	V "	v "	v "
10	VI "	IV "	IV "	IV "
11	v "	III "	III "	III "
12	IV "	Prīdiē "	Prīdiē "	Prīdiē "
13	III "	Īdūs.	Īdūs.	Īdūs.
14	Prīdiē "	XIX Kal.*	XVIII Kal.*	XVI Kal.*
15	Īdūs.	XVIII "	XVII "	xv "
16	XVII Kal.*	XVII "	XVI "	XIV "
17	XVI · "	XVI "	XV "	XIII "
18	XV "	XV "	XIV "	XII "
19	XIV "	XIV "	XIII "	XI "
20	XIII "	XIII "	XII "	X "
21	XII "	XII "	XI "	IX "
22	XI "	XI "	X "	VIII "
23	X "	X "	IX "	VII "
$\widetilde{24}$	IX "	IX "	VIII "	VI "
$\overline{25}$	VIII "	VIII "	VII "	v "
26	VII "	VII "	vi "	iv "
27	vī "	VI "	v "	īii "
28	Ϋ́ "	Ϋ́ "	iv "	Prīdiē "
29	iv "	iv "	iii "	
30	lîii "	îii "	Prīdiē "	
31	Pridie "	Pridië "		

Note. In leap-year the last seven days of February were reckoned thus:—

23.	VII Ka	ılend ä	s Mārtiās.	27.	IV	Kal.	Mārt.
24.	Bisextō	"	"	28.	III	46	"
25.	VI	"	"	29.	Prīdiē	"	"
26.	\boldsymbol{V}	"	"				
		_					

Cf. also 660, 4, Note 2.

^{*} I. e., of course, the Calends of the following month.

MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

662. (1.) The Roman system of reckoning was a duodecimal one, in which the smaller unit $(\frac{1}{12})$ was called $\bar{u}ncia$, the larger unit, as. Thus:—

12	ūnciae			=	12	or 1	as
11	"	or	deūnx	=	$\frac{1}{1}\frac{1}{2}$		"
10	"	"	dēxtāns	=	19	". <u>5</u>	"
9	"	"	dōdrāns	<u> </u>	192	" 3	"
8	46	"	bēs	=	$\frac{8}{12}$	" 3	"
7	"	"	septūnx	=	1^{7}_{2}		"
6	"	"	sēmis	=	1 ⁶ 2	" $\frac{1}{2}$	"
5	"	"	quincünx	=	1^{5}_{2}		"
4	"	66	triēns	=	142	" 1/3	"
3	"	"	quadrāns	=	$\frac{3}{12}$	" 1	"
2	" .	66	sextāns	=	$\frac{2}{12}$	" 1	"
1	<u>1</u> "	66	sēscūncia	=	$\frac{3}{24}$	" 1	"
1	- uncia			=	$\frac{1}{12}$		"

NOTE. The uncia was subdivided as follows: -

(2.) The as was thus the real unit of measurement, and the special units in different kinds of measures and weights were treated as $ass\bar{e}s$, and subdivided into twelfths.

MONEY. 663. = originally about a pound of copper. 1 as = 1 sēstertius or nummus = about 5 cts. 24 assēs 10 cts. 2 sēstertiī = 1 quīnārius = " 20 cts. quīnāriī = 1 dēnārius = " \$5. 25 dēnāriī = 1 (nummus) aureus " \$50. 1000 sēstertiī = 1 sēstertiūm

NOTE 1. Originally all the Roman coins were copper: namely, the as and its fractions. The sēstertius, quinārius, and dēnārius were introduced later, and were silver; the dēnārius was at first equal to ten assēs, but afterwards the as was depreciated, and the dēnārius was equal to sixteen assēs. The aureus was of gold, and was first struck during the second Punic war.

Note 2. For sums from 2,000 to 1,000,000 sesterces, mille, milia, with sestertium (genitive plural), were used, or sestertium as a neuter noun. Thus:—

Quadrāgintā mīlia sestertium or quadrāgintā sestertia = 40,000 sesterces.

NOTE 3. For sums from 1,000,000 sesterces upwards, the combination decies (vīciēs, etc.) centēna mīlia sēstertiūm was used, and the words centēna mīlia were generally omitted. Thus:—

Deciës sestertium = 1,000,000 sesterces; centies sestertium = 10,000,000 sesterces.

Sometimes the numeral adverb was used alone. Thus:— $Deci\bar{e}s = 1,000,000$ sesterces.

NOTE 4. Sesterces were indicated by the sign HS. A line over this indicated thousands, lines on the sides also hundreds of thousands. Thus:

HS. DCC = 700 sēstertii; HS. D = 500,000 sēstertii, or 500 sēstertia; HS. DCCC = 80,000,000 sēstertii.

664. WEIGHTS.

4 scrīpula = 1 sextula.

2 sextulae = 1 sīcīlicus.

4 sīcīlicī = 1 ūncia.

12 ūnciae = 1 lībra (as or pound).

Note 1. The following Greek coins and weights were also used: —

6 oboli = 1 drachma (coin or weight).

100 drachmae = 1 mina.

60 minae = 1 talentum (Attic).

Note 2. In imperial times a siliqua (= $\frac{1}{2}$ obolus) was also used.

665. MEASURES.

(1.) Measures of Length.

4 digitī = 1 palmus minor.

3 palmī minorēs = 1 palmus (māior).

4 palmī = 1 pēs (as) (11.65 Eng. inches).

 $1_{\frac{1}{2}}$ pedēs = 1 cubitus.

 $2\frac{1}{2}$ pedēs = 1 gradus.

2 gradūs = 1 passus. 125 passūs = 1 stadium.

8 stadia = 1 mille (passuum) (Roman mile).

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	da e.
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	= Nonae.
	C. = patrēs conscriptī.
	by P. Cornelius Scipio (the son

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NOTE 1. The unit of square measure is the iugerum (as). The other square measures scarcely require treatment in a grammar at all.

NOTE 2. These measures also were divided into the regular fractions of the as as the equivalent of the pes or iugerum.

- (2.) DRY MEASURE.
 - $1\frac{1}{2}$ cyathī = 1 acētābulum.
 - 4 acētābula = 1 hēmīna.
 - 2 hēmīnae = 1 sextārius.
 - 16 sextāriī = 1 modius (peck).
- (3.) LIQUID MEASURE.
 - 11 cvathī = 1 acētābulum.
 - 2 acētābula = 1 quārtārius.
 - 2 quārtāriī = 1 hēmīna.
 - 2 hēmīnae = 1 sextārius.
 - 6 sextāriī = 1 congius.
 - 4 congiī = 1 ūrna.
 - 2 ūrnae = 1 amphora.
 - 20 amphorae = 1 culleus.

ROMAN NAMES.

- 666. A free Roman had usually three names. Thus:—
- (1.) The PRAENŌMEN, distinguishing the individual.
- (2.) "NÕMEN" " $g\bar{e}ns$.
- (3.) " cōgnōmen " " familia.
- a. Praenomina all end in -us, except Kaesō. Nōmina all end in -ius, and are really adjectives (cf. 268). Cōgnōmina have various endings, and are derived generally from some personal peculiarity of their original bearer (cf. our nicknames). Thus:—

Decimus Jūnius Brūtus.*

Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō.*

Quintus Mūcius Scaevola.*

Sometimes only two names are found; as, Gāius Laelius.

* From brūtus, heavy, scīpiō, a staff, scaevus, the left (hand or side).

b. Further cognomina are often used; thus, especially, cognomina in -iānus indicate adoption from a certain gens; -ānus (when not added to gentile names) and -icus indicate military or other distinction. Thus:—

Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpio Aemilianus, Āfricanus Minor.*

NOTE. The adoptive name is in familiar language often reduced to the gentile form. Thus, Cicero calls Atticus Pompōnius rather than Pompōniānus. In later Latin only, a second cognomen was called an agnomen.

- c. Daughters were usually called simply by their father's gentile name; as, Tullia (Cicero's daughter). If two sisters were to be distinguished, $m\bar{a}ior$ and minor were added. A third or fourth daughter was known as tertia or $qu\bar{a}rta$, and so on.
 - d. The Roman praenomina were abbreviated thus: -

A.	= Aulus.	L.	= Lūcius.	Q.	= Quintus.	
App.	= Appius.	M.	= Mārcus.		=Servius.	
C.	= Gāius.	M'	= Mānī <u>li</u> us.	Sex.	= Sextus.	llanus
Cn.	= Gnaeus.	Mam.	= Māmercus.	Sp.	=Spurius.	
D.	= Decimus.	N.	= Numerius.	T.	= Titus.	
K.	= Kaesō.	Ρ.	$=$ $P\bar{u}$ blius.	Ti. or Tib.	=Tiberius.	

667. ABBREVIATIONS.

Α.	= absolvo, antiquo.	Eq. Rom	. — eques Rōmānus.
a. d.	= ante diem.	F. or f.	== fīlius.
A. U. C.	= annō urbis condi-	Ictus.	= iūrisconsultus.
ta	e.	Īd.	$= \overline{\mathrm{I}}\mathrm{d} \bar{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{s}.$
C.	= condemnō.	imp.	= imperātor.
cos.	= consul.	I. O. M.	= Iovī optumā māx-
coss.	== consules.	umō	
D.	= dīvus.	K. or Ka	al. (or Cal.) = Kalen-
d. d.	== dōnō dedit.	dae.	•
d. d. d.	= dat, dicat, dedicat.	N. or n. :	= nepōs.
des.	= dēsīgnātus.	Non.	= Nonae.
D. M.	= dī mānēs.	P. C. :	= patrēs conscripti.

* The younger Africanus was adopted by P. Cornelius Scipio (the son of Africanus Major) from the Aemilian gens.

pl. = plēbis.	S. D. = salūtem dīcit.
pont. māx. = pontifex māxi-	S. D. P. = salūtem dīcit plūri-
mus.	mam.
pop. = populus.	S. P. Q. R. = Senātus popu-
P. R. = populus Romānus.	lusque Rōmānus.
pr. = praetor.	S. T. E. Q. V. B. E. = sī tibī
proc. = prōcōnsul.	est quod vis bene est.
Q. B. F. F. Q. S. = quod bonum	S. V. B. E. E. V. $=$ sī valēs
fēlīx faustumque sit.	bene est, egŏ valeō.
Quir. = Quirītēs.	Sc. = senātūs consultum.
resp. = rēs pūblica.	tr. = tribūnus.
S. = salūtem, sacrum, Senātus.	U. (u. r.) = utī rogās.

668. PRINCIPAL LATIN WRITERS.

NOTE 1. The writers from the time of Lucretius to the time of Suetonius are called the Classical writers. In a more restricted sense this term is limited to the period beginning with Cicero and Caesar and ending with Tacitus. The Classical period is sometimes divided into the GOLDEN Age and the SILVER Age, the historian Livy counting as the first prose writer of the latter and the Augustan poets being reckoned in the former. Among the writers later than Suetonius a BRAZEN Age, followed by an IRON Age, is sometimes further distinguished. The writers before and after the Classical period are, however, now generally classed simply as Ante-classical and Post-classical writers, respectively.

NOTE 2. The following alphabetical list of the chief Latin writers is subjoined as a convenient reference-list for the pupil.

Acc. or Att.	L. Accius or Attius (trag.)	170-94 в. с.
Amm.	Ammiānus Mārcellīnus (hist.)	died A. D. 400.
App.	L. Appulēius (philos.)	flour. A. D. 160.
Aug.	Aurēlius Augustīnus (Chr.	
	writ.)	died A. D. 430.
Aur. Vict.	Sextus Aurēlius Victor (hist.)	flour. A. D. 360.
Aus.	D. Māgnus Ausonius (poet)	died A. D. 390.
$Bo\"eth.$	Anicius Mānlius Torquātus	
	Sevērīnus Boētius or Boē-	
	thius (philos.)	died A. D. 525.
Caecil.	Stātius Caecilius (comed.)	flour. 180 B. C.

Caes.	Gāius Iūlius Caesar (hist.)	100-44 в. с.
Cassiod.	Māgnus Aurēlius Cassiodō-	died A. D. 575.
Cata	rus (hist.)	alea A. D. 313.
Cato	M. Porcius Catō (orat. and hist.)	234–149 в. с.
Cat. or Catull.	C. Valerius Catullus (poet)	87-54 в. с.
Cels.	Aurēlius Cornēlius Celsus	
0000	(physic.)	flour. A. D. 50.
Censor.	Cēnsōrīnus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 238.
Charis.	Flāvius Sösipater Charisius	nour. A. D. 200.
Onaris.	(gram.)	flour. A. D. 375.
Cic. or C.	M. Tullius Cicero (orat. and	nour. A. D. 010.
Cw. 01 C.	philos.)	106-43 в. с.
Claud.	Claudius Claudiānus (poet)	flour. A. D. 400.
Col.	L. Iūnius Moderātus Colu-	nour. A. D. 400.
000.	mella (husbandry)	flour. A. D. 50.
Cornif.	Q. Cornificius (rhet. "ad	nour. A. D. 00.
corney.	Herennium ")	flour. 80 B. c.?
Curt.	Q. Curtius Rūfus (hist.)	flour. A. D. 50.
Donat. or)	Q. Curvius Ivarus (msv.)	nour. A. D. Co.
Don.: S	Allius Donātus (comment.)	flour. A. D. 350.
Enn.	Q. Ennius (poet)	239-169 в. с.
Fest.	Sex. Pompēius Fēstus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 150?
Flor.	L. Annaeus Florus (hist.)	flour. A. D. 140.
Front. or)	S. Iūlius Frontīnus (engin.,	
Frontin. \(\)	etc.)	а. р. 40-103.
Fronto or \	76 () -1' Ti 4= (100 175
Front.	M. Cornēlius Frontō (orat.)	а. р. 100–175.
Gai.	Gāius (Iūriscōnsultus)	а. р. 110-180.
Gell.	Aulus Gellius (gram., etc.)	а. р. 130-175.
Hier.	Hierōnymus (Chr. writ.)	died A. D. 420.
Hirt.	Aulus Hirtius (hist., "8th	
	book of Caes.," etc.)	died 44 B. C.
Hor.	Q. Horātius Flaccus (poet)	65-8 в. с.
Iust.	Iūstīniānus (emperor,	
	"Code")	died A. D. 565.

Iuv.	D. Iūnius Iuvenālis (satir.	
	poet)	A. d. 60-140.
Lact.	L. Caelius Lactantius Fīrmi-	
	ānus (Chr. writ.)	died A. D. 325.
Liv.	Titus Līvius (hist.)	59 в. с. – а. р. 17.
Liv. Andron.	Līvius Andronīcus (trag.)	284-204 в. с.
Luc.	M. Annaeus Lūcānus (poet)	A. D. $39-65$.
Lucil.	C. Ennius Lūcīlius (satir.	
	poet)	died 103 B. C.
Lucr.	T. Lucrētius Cārus (poet,	
	philos.)	98-55 в. с.
Macr.	Aurēlius Theodosius Macro-	
	bius (critic)	flour. A. D. 400.
Mart.	M. Valerius Mārtiālis (poet)	A. D. 40-102.
Mart. Cap.	Mārtiānus Minneus Fēlīx	
	Capella (satir.)	flour. A. D. 425?
${\it Mel.}$ or ${\it Mela}$	Pompōnius Mela (geog.)	flour. A. D. 45.
Min. Fel.	Minucius Fēlīx (Chr. writ.)	flour. A. D. 200.
Naev.	C. Naevius (dram. and epic	
	poet)	235-199 в. с.
Nep.	Cornēlius Nepōs (biog.)	flour. 44 B. C.
Non.	Nõnius Mārcellus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 280?
Ov.	P. Ovidius Nāsō (poet)	43 B. C. – A. D. 17.
Pac. or ?	M. Pācuvius (trag.)	220-132 в. с.
$Pacuv. \ \ $,	220-102 B. C.
Pers.	A. Persius Flaccus (satir.)	A. d. 34–62.
Petr.	Petronius Arbiter (satir.	
	romanc.)	flour. A. D. 60?
Phaedr.	T. Phaedrus (fab.)	flour. A. D. 40.
Plaut.	T. Maccius Plautus (comed.)	254-184 в. с.
Plin.	C. Plīnius Secundus [Māior]	
	(nat. hist.)	A. D. 23-79.
Plin.	C. Plīnius Caecilius Secundus	
	[Minor] (letters)	а. р. 62–113.
Prisc.		
Prop.	Prīsciānus (gram.) Sextus Propertius (poet)	flour. A. D. 500. 49-15 B. C.

Prud.	Aurēlius Prūdentius Clēmēns	
1700	(Chr. writ.)	flour. A. D. 400.
Quint.	M. Fabius Quīntiliānus (rhet.)	A. D. 35-95.
Sall.	C. Sallustius Crispus (hist.)	87–34 в. с.
Sen.	[M.] Annaeus Seneca (rhet.)	54 B. C. – A. D. 39
Sen.	L. Annaeus Seneca (phil.	or bion in brook
2011.	and trag.)	4 B. C A. D. 65.
Serv.	Servius Honorātus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 390.
Sid.	Apollināris Sīdonius (Chr.	nour in Di oco.
Su.	writ.)	died A. D. 488.
Sil.	C. Sīlius Ītalicus (poet)	A. D. 25-101.
Stat.	P. Pāpinius Stātius (poet)	A. D. 45-96.
Suet.	C. Suētōnius Tranquillus	A. D. 10 00.
Succi.	(biog.)	а. р. 75–160.
Tac.	C. Cornēlius Tacitus (hist.)	A. D. 55-119.
Ter. or $T.$	P. Terentius Āfer (comed.)	185–159 в. с.
Ter. Maur.	Terentiānus Maurus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 290.
Tert.	Q. Septimius Florens Tertul-	Hour. A. D. 200.
10.0.	liānus (Chr. writ.)	died A. D. 220.
Tib.	Albius Tibullus (poet)	54–19 в. с.
Ulp.	Domitius Ulpiānus (jur.)	died A. D. 228.
Val. Fl.	C. Valerius Flaccus (poet)	flour. A. D. 70.
Val. Max.	Valerius Māximus (hist.	2001. 11. 21. 10.
7 400 111 440	anec.)	flour. A. D. 26.
Val. Prob.	M. Valerius Probus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 60?
Varr.	M. Terentius Varrō (hus-	110411 111 21 00 1
,	bandry, gram., etc.)	116-27 в. с.
Vell.	P. Vellēius Paterculus (hist.)	flour. A. D. 30?
Ver. Flac.	Verrius Flaccus (gram.)	died 4 B. C.?
Verg.	P. Vergilius Marō (poet)	70-19 в. с.
Vitr.	Vitrūvius Pollio (arch.)	flour. 10 B. C.

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